

GAZETTEER

OF THE

SHÁHPUR DISTRICT.

1883-4.



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PUNJAB GOVERNMENT.

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P R E F A C E.

THE period fixed by the Punjab Government for the compilation of the *Gazetteer* of the Province being limited to twelve months, the Editor has not been able to prepare any original matter for the present work ; and his duties have been confined to throwing the already existing material into shape, supplementing it as far as possible by contributions obtained from district officers, passing the draft through the press, circulating it for revision, altering it in accordance with the corrections and suggestions of revising officers, and printing and issuing the final edition.

The material available in print for the *Gazetteer* of this district consisted of the Settlement Reports, and a draft *Gazetteer* compiled, between 1870 and 1874 by Mr. F. Cunningham, Barrister-at-Law. Notes on certain points have been supplied by district officers ; while the report on the Census of 1881 has been utilised. Of the present volume, Section A of Chap. V (General Administration), and the whole of Chap. VI (Towns), have been for the most part supplied by the Deputy Commissioner ; Section A of Chap. III (Statistics of Population) has been taken from the Census Report ; while here and there, and especially in the matter of ancient history, passages have been extracted from Mr. Cunningham's compilation already referred to. But, with these exceptions, the great mass of the text has been taken almost, if not quite verbally, from Colonel Davies' Settlement Report of the district.

The report in question was written in 1866, and necessarily affords somewhat inadequate material for an account of the district as it stands at present. No better or fuller material, however, was either available or procurable within

the time allowed. But when the district again comes under settlement, a second and more complete edition of this *Gazetteer* will be prepared ; and meanwhile the present edition will serve the useful purpose of collecting and publishing in a systematic form, information which had before been scattered, and part unpublished.

The draft edition of this *Gazetteer* has been revised by Colonel Davies, Colonel Corbyn, Mr. Frizelle and Mr. Maco-nachie, and by the Irrigation Department so far as regards the canals of the district. The Deputy Commissioner is responsible for the spelling of vernacular names, which has been fixed throughout by him in accordance with the prescribed system of transliteration.

THE EDITOR.

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Table No. 1 showing LEADING STATISTICS.

1	2	3	4	5
DETAILS.	District.	DETAILS OF TASHILS.		
		Shahpur.	Khasab.	Dhera.
Total square miles (1891)	...	1,032	2,473	1,181
Cultivated square miles (1878)	...	251	252	254
Culturable square miles (1878)	...	737	1,150	883
Irrigated square miles (1878)	...	275	46	237
Average square miles under crops (1877 to 1891)	...	117	207	173
Annual rainfall in inches (1893 to 1891)	...	16.1	11.9	15.6
Number of inhabited towns and villages (1891)	...	339	139	279
Total population (1891)	...	192,633	131,613	167,260
Rural population (1891)	...	106,001	119,830	114,026
Urban population (1891)	...	16,632	11,783	23,234
Total population per square mile (1891)	...	119	63	142
Rural population per square mile (1891)	...	103	48	123
Hindus (1891)	...	19,304	14,970	21,753
Sikhs (1891)	...	1,491	2,008	1,216
Jains (1891)	9
Muslimans (1891)	...	101,831	111,659	141,281
Average annual land revenue (1877 to 1891)*	...	141,331	113,376	110,553
Average annual gross revenue (1877 to 1891) †

* Fixed, fluctuating, and Miscellaneous.

† Land, Tribute, Local rates, Excise, and Stamp.

SHAHPUR.

CHAPTER I.

THE DISTRICT.

The Sháhpur district is the southernmost of the four districts of the Ráwalpindi division, and lies between north latitude $31^{\circ} 32'$ and $32^{\circ} 42'$, and east longitude $71^{\circ} 37'$ and $73^{\circ} 24'$. It is bounded on the north by the Jhelum which separates it from the Pind Dádan Khán *tahsil*, and by the Talágang *tahsil* of the Jhelum district, on the east by the Gujrát district, and by the Chenáb which separates it from Gujránwála, on the south by the Jhang district, and on the west and north-west by the districts of Dera Ismail Khán and Bannu. It is divided into three *tahsils*, of which that of Bhera lies to the east and comprises so much of the cis-Jhelum portion of the district as lies opposite Pind Dádan Khán. Of the remainder of the district the cis-Jhelum portion constitutes the Sháhpur, and the trans-Jhelum portion the Khusháb *tahsil*.

Some leading statistics regarding the district and the several *tahsils* into which it is divided are given in Table No. I on the opposite page. The district contains one town of more than 10,000 souls, viz., Bhera with a population of 15,165. The administrative headquarters are situated at Sháhpur near the bank of the river Jhelum, in the centre of the district. Sháhpur stands 7th in order of area and 24th in order of population among the 32 districts of the province, comprising 4.40 per cent. of the total area, 2.23 per cent. of the total population, and 2.12 per

Town.	N. Latitude.	E. Longitude	Feet above sea-level.
Sháhpur	$32^{\circ} 17'$	$72^{\circ} 29'$	647
Khusháb	$32^{\circ} 19'$	$72^{\circ} 24'$	641*
Bhera	$31^{\circ} 29'$	$72^{\circ} 67'$	690*
Pakercar	$32^{\circ} 32' 31''$	$71^{\circ} 28' 36''$	4,993

cent. of the urban population of British territory. The latitude, longitude, and height in feet above the sea of the principal places in the district are shown in the margin.

Extending as it does from the river Chenáb to the Salt Range, and including portions of those mountains, the district, though for the most part plain, presents more than one variation of soil and climate. On either side of the Jhelum, which divides the district into two nearly equal portions, stretch wide plains at present barren, or productive only of a coarse growth of brushwood. Much, however, of this area is composed of good soil only requiring irrigation to make it productive of fine crops; indeed, if we except the *thal* of the

Chapter I.
Descriptive.
General description

General features.

* Approximate.

Chapter I.
Descriptive.
General features.

Sindh-Sāgar Doāb, there is little land that would not repay the labour of the husbandman, could he but procure water at a moderate cost. As it, however, some 83 per cent. of the area is in a state of nature; while in the southern half of the district, cultivation is for the most part confined to a strip of land varying from 3 to 15 miles in width along the banks of the Chenāb and Jhelum rivers. The most important physical sub-divisions of the district are, the Salt Range in the north, the valleys of the Jhelum and Chenāb, and the plains between those rivers and between the Jhelum and the Salt Range. The characteristics of these two plains are widely different, though both are barren and unproductive. The desert portion of the southern plain is termed the *bār*; the corresponding tract north of the Jhelum is known as the *thal*.

Physical features of
southern half of
the district.

At first sight it would seem that there is little to describe in this part of the district, so much of sameness is there in the general aspect of the country; but closer observation reveals features worth noting. First, there is the general slope upwards from the low cultivated lands to the high and dry expanse of the *bār*. The ascent, though of course common to both sides of the Doāb, is far from uniform. In places it is so gradual as to be almost imperceptible, the fact revealing itself to the traveller inland only by the increase of waste and jungle, and the decrease of life and cultivation. In others the transition is so abrupt as to be almost startling. The latter is the case on the Jhelum at intervals from the boundary of Gujrat westward to Shāhpur; but after leaving this point, a marked change takes place, the belt of cultivation rapidly increasing from three or four miles, the average width hitherto, to two or three times as much by the time the southern boundary of the district is reached. Again, on the side of the Chenāb the rise in the surface level is more gradual than on that of the Jhelum, and as a consequence, cultivation extends further inland along the former river. The people account for this by affirming that the river itself, at no very remote period, flowed considerably to the west of its present course; and the explanation is probably correct, as the remains of what appears to have been the former bed of the stream,* or at least of a very important branch, are still plainly visible, winding along at distances varying from six to ten miles, almost parallel to the present course of the river. It may also be worth noting that, on the Jhelum side, the otherwise continuous rise of the land is interrupted in the most capricious manner by a series of abrupt depressions. These are met with at intervals of two or three miles, and extend in places to distances of not less than fifteen miles from the present position of the river, of which they also were probably at one time branches. From these and other indications there is reason to believe that both these rivers have been gradually receding from their original positions, the one to the east, the other to the west.

Cultivated portion
divided into the
hithār and *nakla*.

The zones of cultivation, on both sides of this Doāb, are divided by the people into the *hithār* and the *nakla*. The former is the alluvial tract immediately bordering on the rivers. It contains the

* Known by the name *Budhi nai* or old stream; the Lahore road crosses it between Bhagatnāla and Laksā.

finest villages; almost every acre of it is under cultivation during the *rabī* harvest, and little or no irrigation is required to bring its luxuriant crops to maturity. The latter is the strip of country lying between the *hithār* and the *bār*, beyond the fertilizing influence of the inundations of the river, yet not so far as to render artificial irrigation unprofitable. Tillage in this tract may be said to be entirely dependent on wells, water is found at distances varying from 35 to 50 feet from the surface, and both spring and autumn crops are grown. Villages, as might be expected, are fewer, smaller, and, as a rule, not in such flourishing condition as those in the more favoured tracts bordering on the rivers.

The space intervening between these belts of cultivation is occupied by an expanse of jungle known by the generic title of the *bār*. No lengthened description of this inhospitable region is required, as, in its principal features, it closely resembles the allied tracts in the Rechna and Bāri Doābs. As before stated, the soil is good; but water is so far from the surface,* that irrigation from wells would be too expensive for adoption were even the water sweet; as a rule, however, this is not the case, and the utmost that is ever attempted in the way of tillage, is the raising of an occasional rain crop in hollows, which, from receiving the surface drainage, are, in favourable seasons, kept sufficiently moist to allow of the ripening of the crops. But the main use to which the *bār* is put is as a pasture ground for cattle, immense herds of which are to be found roaming at will through these prairie jungles, and in ordinary seasons, finding ample sustenance in the rich crops of grass which spring up after rain. Population is scanty and villages here few, and separated from each other by great distances.

In a region so generally arid, tree-vegetation is as a matter of course very limited, and such as is to be met with is confined to the more hardy varieties, those which require comparatively little moisture for their spontaneous growth. Accordingly, we find that the only trees indigenous to this district are the *kikar* (*Acacia Arabica*), the *ber* (*Zizyphus jujuba*), and the *fardsh* (*Tamarix indica*) in the low lands; and in the *bār*, the *karī* or wild caper, (*Capparis aphylla*), the *jand* (*Prosopis spicigera*) and the *pīlu* (*Salvadora oleoides*); these latter form a dense jungle in which the *pīlu* largely predominates. In addition to the foregoing, in favourable situations near the rivers and by the sides of wells, may be found specimens of the *shisham* (*Dalbergia sissoo*), *siras* (*Acacia sirus*) and other kinds; but they are nowhere to be seen in any numbers, and the probability is that they are not of natural growth. Much has been done, since our occupation of the country, to promote the growth of useful trees, and every day the results are becoming more apparent.

The northern half is by far the most interesting portion of the district, containing as it does such varieties of scenery and climate, such contrasts of soil, vegetation, and natural capabilities. The lowlands along the right bank of the Jhelum have little to distinguish them from the corresponding tract on the opposite bank of

Chapter I.

Descriptive.

Cultivated portion divided into the *hithār* and *nakkā*.

The *Bār*.

Character of vegetation south of the Jhelum.

The tract north of the Jhelum.

* From 60 to 75 feet.

Chapter I.
Descriptive.
 The tract north of
 the Jhelum.

the river; but on leaving these and moving inland, all resemblance to the country south of the river ceases. Looking to the north, a hard level plain, in places impregnated with salt, and throughout almost devoid of vegetation, occupies the foreground; beyond it extends a zone of a few miles of cultivation, and the view is shut in by a barrier of rugged and apparently barren hills; while on turning to the east and south, is seen an interminable plain, the soil of which, changing from the hard clay of the *mohār* to the sand of the *thal*, gradually loses itself in the horizon. The area included within this general description is made up of three strongly marked natural divisions: (1) the Salt Range; (2) the cultivated plains along the base of these hills, sub-divided popularly into the *mohār* and *dandū*; and (3) the *thal*. Each of these deserves separate notice.

The Salt Range.

The portion of the chain of hills called the Salt Range, included within the limits of this district, commences at the village of Padhrār on the east, and ends on the west at the Sakesar hill, the highest peak in the range, a total length of about forty miles. At its narrowest part, opposite Katha, the range does not exceed eight miles in width; but from this point it rapidly increases, till at Jabbi the interval between the plains on both sides cannot be less than twenty miles; thence it narrows again rapidly, and the external ridges on both sides of the range, closing round the Sūn valley, unite and form the Sakesar hill. The area between these limits is made up of a number of rock-bound alluvial basins, of which the largest, the Sūn and the Khabaki valleys, occupy the northern half of the range, while the lower portion is cut up into a number of very diminutive valleys and glens, by a succession of limestone ridges and their connecting spurs. Of these, the Patial and Sakesar mountains, with the intermediate chain of lower hills, form the central watershed, issuing from which the surplus drainage passes off to the south into the plains below, but to the north, finding no outlet, it collects in the lowest parts of the valleys and there forms lakes. In this part of the range, there are three of these sheets of water, of which the Uchālī lake, or Samundar as it is called, is by far the largest; of the other two, one is situated between the villages of Khabaki and Mardwāl, and the other in front of the small village of Jāhlar. The southern face of the range exhibits a very rugged and broken appearance, its distorted strata, rent cliffs, and huge detached masses of rock telling plainly of the violence of the commotion which must have attended the birth of these hills. The irregularity of the outline on this side is further increased by the occurrence of a succession of deep indentations, through which the surplus waters of the range empty themselves into the plains below. But on the north, the contour of the hills is for the most part smooth and undulating, and the descent into the plains of Pakkhar and Talāgang easy and gradual.

The scenery of the Salt Range throughout is pleasing, in places is grand and picturesque; and its hills and valleys, situated at elevations varying from 2,500 to 5,000 feet above the sea-level, enjoy a climate many degrees cooler than that of the plains, and not unlike that of Kashmir. The soil, formed of the gradual disintegra-

tion of the limestone and sandstone rocks of which the upper surface of the range is chiefly composed, is exceedingly fertile, and its powers are being constantly renovated by fresh deposits of alluvium brought down by the torrents which discharge into the valleys the drainage from the surrounding hills. Cultivation here is almost entirely dependent on rain; but owing to the comparative coolness of the climate, which by reducing the evaporation from the surface economises the supply of moisture, the crops in ordinary seasons ripen without the want of artificial irrigation being felt; so much is this the case, that it is a common saying among the people that the *rabi* crop in the Sún valley (the richest and largest in the range) has never been known to fail. These hills, moreover, are not without the attractive influence on clouds which similar masses exert elsewhere, and as a consequence the fall of rain in the range is far greater than in the plains to the south; this fact of course materially contributes to the stability of its cultivation.

The vegetation on the southern face is of the scantiest description, being confined to a few stunted *phuldhi* trees (*Acacia modesta*) and the *salsolas* and other plants peculiar to soils impregnated with salt. In the interior of the range, however, a notable change in this respect is observable, for, although it is nowhere well wooded, yet trees of many kinds are to be met with in considerable numbers, and the hill-sides are everywhere green with bushes of the bog myrtle (*Dodonea burmanniana*) and a plant (*Adhatoda vassica*) called by the natives *bahekar*. Trees of all hardy kinds will grow luxuriantly in the valleys, but as a rule all have been cleared away to give room for cultivation. The trees which are found in the greatest numbers and appear indigenous, are the wild olive (*kañ*), the *phuldhi* above spoken of, the common Indian mulberry, and the *kunger* (*Grewia betulæfolia*.) A great number of other varieties are to be seen as single trees, here and there in the beds of torrents, or by the side of watercourses. The *shisham* thrives well in the valleys, without, however, attaining to any great size, but the climate is too cold for the *siras*.

The plains extending along the base of the Salt Range, known to the people as the *mohár*, present a marked and disagreeable contrast to the valleys above. A fertile strip of alluvial land from three to four miles in width, slopes rapidly away from the hills, closely intersected by the beds of torrents. It is succeeded by level plains, in places impregnated with salt, and barren, in others formed of good culturable soil. The only approach to vegetation consists of *karil* bushes thinly distributed over the surface, with here and there trees of the *farash* and *kikar* varieties growing in the beds of torrents. Tillage is almost exclusively confined to the upper portion (the *mohár* proper), the land there being of better quality and in quantity more than sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants; the lower part (the, *danda*) is chiefly used by the villagers as pasture grounds for cattle.

The most important streams of this tract are, the Vahi which debouches on to the plains near the village of Katha; the Surakka which waters the fine estates of Jabbi and Dhokri; and the Dhodha, which, after receiving the drainage from Sakesar and the hills round

Chapter I.
Descriptive.
The Salt Range.

Vegetation of Salt
Range.

The *mohár* and
danda.

Streams.

Chapter I.
Descriptive.

Scarcity of good
water in the *mohār*.

Amb, fertilizes the lands of the border village of Kiri Golewāli. But of the many channels by which the drainage of the Salt Range is conducted into the plains, the first named is the only one that holds a constant supply of water.

The scarcity of good water is one of the marked characteristics of this part of the district. The springs of good water which here and there are to be found trickling out of the clefts of the rocks above, become in their passage through the inferior salt strata so brackish, as to be quite unfit for use by either men or animals; and the sub-soil everywhere throughout this tract is so thoroughly impregnated with saline matter, that all attempts to obtain good water by means of wells have hitherto failed. Hence the population are driven to store up supplies of this necessary of life in tanks, but the heat, increased by radiation from the adjacent rocks, is so intense that not infrequently these reservoirs dry up before they can be replenished; when this occurs the people are put to great straits, having often to perform a daily journey of many miles to obtain water sufficient for themselves and their cattle. It may be added that these tanks are indiscriminately used by men and animals, and hence in course of time the water becomes so impure as to be of fruitful source a disease, of which guinea-worm is not the least distressing, as it is the most common form.

The *Thal*.

In common parlance, the entire expanse of country south of the Salt Range, beyond the influence of the rivers, is called the *thal*; but in speaking more discriminately, this word is used to indicate that portion of the district which is situated south of the road from Khushāb to Dera Ismail Khān. A casual observer would say of this dreary region, that it resembles nothing so much as an angry sea, sand-hills being substituted for waves; and to a certain extent the remark would be true of a portion of the *thal*; and yet such a description would convey a very imperfect notion of the country known by this name, for it leaves out some important features, without which the sketch is wanting in truth, and degenerates into a caricature. To render the likeness complete, we must add that the waves or hillocks of sand possess this peculiarity; that they all run in one direction, north-west and south-east; that in the intervals between these waves occur patches of hard soil, which produce good crops of grass; while the whole surface is covered by stunted bushes. Nor is this all; the general sandy and undulating character of the *thal* is in places broken by long stretches of perfectly level ground (called *patti*), which under artificial irrigation produce excellent crops. One of these belts occurs west of Nūrpur, and extends without a break as far as Muzaffargarh; its average width in this district is about two miles. Here the best villages are to be found, and throughout the *thal* it is only in the *patti* that masonry wells are to be met with.

Vegetation of the
Thal.

The vegetation of the *thal* consists almost entirely of low brushwood and grasses. The few trees may be counted on the fingers, and, with rare exceptions, are to be found only round villages. The *ber* seems to be the only tree that survives in any numbers the scorching heat and long-continued droughts of this arid region. The bushes to be seen everywhere are the *phog* (*Calligonum polygō-*

noides), the *lána* (*Caroxylon fatidum*), the *bái* (*Pauderia pilosa*) on which camels browse, the *madár* (*Colatropis gigantea*) and the *karnal* (*Peganum karmala*) which nothing will touch. Of the two last, the former yields a fine floss, which has been successfully worked into rugs, and might be utilized in other ways, and the latter is used by the people as a medicine, and is popularly supposed to possess many virtues. The yield of grass in favourable seasons is considerable, but still, owing to the prevalence of sand-hills on which little or no vegetation is to be found, the same area will not support so many cattle as in the *bár*. Of the many varieties of grass produced the *khabal* (the *dhúb* of Hindustán), the *dháman* and *chhimbar*, all prostrate grasses, are the most prized.

It has been already stated that masonry wells are not uncommon in the *patti*. These are all sunk in the immediate vicinity of villages, and are used both for domestic purposes and to raise a small crop of wheat or vegetables. In other parts of the *thal*, *kacha* or unlined wells are dug and periodically renewed as required. It has been found that wells of this class fall in after being used for twelve or eighteen months. They are never employed by the people for irrigation, but solely for supplying drinking water for themselves and their cattle. The water of the *thal* is all more or less brackish, and it is only after long use that it can be consumed without producing injurious effects. It is found at distances varying from 45 to 60 feet from the surface.

From the foregoing description it will be seen that Nature has formed this tract to be the abode of a pastoral population alone, and it is by such that we find it peopled; but the change from anarchy to settled Government has so far modified the habits of the people, that whereas, prior to British rule, they subsisted entirely on the produce of their flocks and herds, having no fixed abodes, but moving from place to place wherever a good supply of grass was to be found, they are now to be seen gradually settling down into permanent habitations, and availing themselves of every opportunity offered by the seasons to add to their other resources, by cultivating the patches of good soil with which the ridges of sand are everywhere interspersed. A marked change has taken place in this respect, and with the growth of settled habits an attachment to the soil is being rapidly developed.

The success of agriculture in this district is largely dependent on the annual floods from its rivers. The district is traversed throughout its length by the Jhelum. This river, otherwise known as the Vitasta and Behat, rises in the south-eastern corner of the Kashmír valley, after traversing which it is joined by the Kishnganga, and the united streams from this point, flowing nearly due south, enter British territory a few miles above the town of Jhelum. The river, from the moment that it enters the plains, following the general slope of the country, adopts a more westerly course, which it maintains without much variation till it mingles its waters with the Chenáb at Trimmu, a few miles below the town of Jhang, having traversed in its passage through hills and plains a distance of not less than four hun-

Chapter I.:
Descriptive.
Vegetation of the
Thal.

Supply of water.

Habits of the population.

Rivers.

The Jhelum.

Chapter I.

Descriptive.

The Jhelum.

dred and fifty miles; of which about two hundred have lain in British territory. In the plains the Jhelum is a muddy river, with a current of about four miles an hour. The average width of the stream in this district, at flood, is about 800 yards, dwindling down in the winter months to less than half this size. Fickle as all Indian rivers are, from the circumstance that they flow through a flat clayey soil unable to resist the action of water, perhaps none can surpass the Jhelum in this respect, nor in the damage which it annually causes by its vagaries. This fact, combined with the comparative narrowness of its channel, has probably led to the existence of a custom, which will be fully described in its proper place, by which the integrity of states on both banks of the river is preserved. A remarkable feature of this river is the sudden freshets to which it is subject. These occur after very heavy rain in the hills, when the swollen stream, overleaping its banks, inundates the country for miles on either side, and then gradually subsides within its normal bounds. These freshets, or *kangs* as they are called by the people, are very different in their character to the floods caused by the melting of the snows, as they seldom last more than one or two days. In favourable seasons several of these inundations take place, and it is not easy to exaggerate the beneficial effects produced on the large area thus submerged. The soil becomes thoroughly saturated, and its productive powers often greatly enhanced by the deposits of alluvium left by the receding waters.

The Chenáb.

For twenty-five miles the Chenáb forms the boundary between this district and Gujranwála. Draining as it does a larger area the volume of its waters is greater than that of the Jhelum; but then its stream being broader, the current is more sluggish, and it is not liable to shift its channel so frequently or so rapidly as that river. Its width during the rains, at the ferry opposite Pindi Bhattián, is considerably over a mile. Impetuous while in flood, its average velocity does not exceed two and a half miles an hour. As an agent for adding to the productive powers of the soil, the Chenáb is decidedly inferior to the Jhelum, the deposits left by its floods being inferior both in quality and quantity.

Canals.

Inundation canals may now be counted as a distinct feature in the agricultural system of the district, and will find appropriate mention here. Although by no means new to the district, as evidenced by the many remains of such works to be met with along the edge of the *bár* on the Jhelum side, all that ever existed had been allowed to fall into disuse, and had long ago become silted up. At length in 1860, one of these was experimentally cleared out by Mr. McNabb, then Deputy Commissioner of the district. The partial success of the trial, combined with judicious encouragement, led Sáhib Khán, Tiwána, a wealthy and enterprising native gentleman, to excavate an entirely new canal to water a grant of waste land of which he had obtained a long lease. Fortunately for the future of the district, the work was completely successful, and the *malik's* gains large; and from that time it has been the duty of the District Officer rather to control within reasonable bounds than to foster the spirit of enterprise which has arisen in consequence.

Altogether 26 inundation canals have been constructed in the district since 1860 for irrigation purposes, which may be divided as follows :—

Chapter I.
Descriptive.
History of Canals.

(a) *Canals under Irrigation Department.*

	<i>Length.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>
1. Station canal ...	22 miles, irrigates ... }	8,600
2. New Sâhiwâl ...	17 " " ... }	2,500
3. Old Sâhiwâl ...	19 " " ... }	1,800
4. McNabbwâh ...	14 " " ... }	

(b) *Canals under District Authority.*

	<i>Length.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>
5. Râniwâh (maintained from Provincial Fund) ...	23 miles, irrigates ...	18,000
6. Corbynwâh ...	20 " " ...	2,800

(c) *Private Canals.*

	<i>Length.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>
7. Pîrânwâla ...	15 miles, irrigates ...	2,500
8. Amrochandwâla ...	17 " " ...	2,000
9. Makhdûmânwâla ...	10 " " ...	1,250
10. Thattiwâla ...	2½ " " ...	500
11. Nangîana or Nabba ...	2 " " ...	350
12. Nathûwâla ...	6 " " ...	858
13. Obillwâla, or Jahânkhânwâla ...	19 " " ...	5,023
14. Sultân Mahmudwâla ...	20 " " ...	3,496
15. Malik Sahibkhânwâla ...	12 " " ...	13,348
16. Kandânwâla, or Mughlânwâla ...	13 " " ...	292
17. Malik Sher Muhammad-khânwâla ...	14½ " " ...	1,215
18. Dâimwâla ...	2 " " ...	500
19. Malik Fâtteh Khân and Hâkimkhânwâla ...	17 " " ...	4,000
20. Mohkamdînawâla ...	2½ " " ...	312
21. Malik Jahânkhânwâla ...	18 " " ...	250
22. Mahûtânwâla ...	8 " " ...	500
23. Sarfrazkhânwâla ...	15 " " ...	5,421
24. Meknânwâla ...	19 " " ...	3,539
25. Malik Sahibkhânwâla (new cut) ...	6 " " ...	463
26. Jhamtanwâla ...	3 " " ...	211

The first six of these, which are Government canals, are fully described with their administration in Chapter V.

Colonel Davies thus describes the climate of the district: "The general climatic conditions of the Shâhpur district have little to distinguish them from those of other tracts of country similarly situated with reference to the Himalayas. In India the heat in the plains being practically the same everywhere, the healthiness of the place appears to depend mainly on the quantity of moisture deposited on the surface, combined with the efficiency of the machinery for drainage, that is, the capacity of the soil to absorb or convey away rapidly the water falling on it; the rule apparently being that the less the moisture, and the better the

Rainfall, temperature and climate.

Chapter I.

Descriptive.

Rainfall, temperature and climate.

natural drainage, the healthier the place, and *vice versa*. Now the average rainfall here throughout the year being only fifteen inches, and the texture of the soil in most parts of the district sufficiently loose rapidly to absorb water, it should follow, if this rule is a true one, that the district is generally healthy; and such I think it may be pronounced unhesitatingly. The only exceptions are the tracts immediately bordering the rivers, where, in the autumn months, after very heavy floods, fever prevails and commits great ravages. The health of towns I say nothing of, as it is affected by so many causes peculiarly local, and can therefore form no criterion whereby to test the salubrity of the tract of country of which the towns constitute so infinitesimal a part. It will of course be understood that I am speaking exclusively of the plains. It may be added that the average rain-fall having been deduced from observations made exclusively in the plains, no information can be given as to the actual difference in this respect between the hills and plains; but there is little doubt of the fact before noticed, that the balance is largely in favour of the former tract. In the matter of temperature the Salt Range possesses still great advantages, the valleys being certainly not less than ten degrees, and the highest peaks probably 20 degrees, cooler than the plains all the year round; perhaps during the dry weather immediately preceding the rains the difference in temperature is not so great."

Table No. III shows in tenths of an inch the total rainfall registered at each of the rain-gauge stations in the district for each year, from 1866-67 to 1882-83. The fall at head-quarters for the four preceding years is shown in the margin. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year is shown in Tables Nos. IIIA and IIIB. There is no record of temperature at

Year.	Tenths of an inch
1866-67	213
1867-68	141
1868-69	140
1869-70	144

present maintained in Shalpur, but records of 1868-69 and 1869-70 give a mean temperature in the shade of 80.55° and 80.76° respectively. The highest temperature recorded was 126° in the shade in May 1868-69, the lowest 22° in December of the following year.

Disease.

The prevailing endemic diseases in the district are thus reported on by the Civil Surgeon :—

"Intermittent and, to a less extent, remittent fevers are very prevalent in the autumn months, more especially along the banks of the Jhelum and Chenáb, and in the villages near the foot of the Salt Range. In November and December the fever is often complicated with pneumonia and bronchitis; dysentery and diarrhoea are often common symptoms of the disease. Towards the end of the season, enlargement of the spleen is often prevalent. The rivers overflowing their banks during the rains have probably something to do with the prevalence of fever, for when the rainfall is small it is observed the fever is also less prevalent. Goitre is often met with on the right bank of the Chenáb, more particularly at the town of Midh. The well water seems to have some connection with this disease, for though every one in Midh, where the people drink well water, suffers from goitre to a greater or less degree, the inhabitants of an island in the Chenáb about three miles from Midh, who drink river water only, do not suffer in the least from the disease. In Midh the very dogs are

said to suffer from the disease. Guinea-worm is often met with in the villages at the foot of the Salt Range. This is caused by the *Filuria medicinalis*, which must exist in the water or soil there. Stones in the bladder is also common throughout the district."

Tables Nos. XI, XII, XIII and XLIV give annual and monthly statistics of births and deaths for the district and for its towns during the last five years; while the birth and death-rates since 1868, so far as available, will be found in Chap. III, for the general population, and in Chapter VI under the heads of the several large towns of the district. Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deafmutes, and lepers as ascertained at the Census of 1881; while Table No. XXXVIII shows the working of the dispensaries since 1877.

Our knowledge of Indian geology is as yet so general in its nature, and so little has been done in the Panjab in the way of detailed geological investigation, that it is impossible to discuss the local geology of separate districts. But a sketch of the geology of the Province as a whole has been most kindly furnished by Mr. Medlicott, Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, and is published in *extenso* in the Provincial volume of the Gazetteer series, and also as a separate pamphlet.

It may, however, be mentioned that a very interesting petrifying process is going on at Narsingpahr in the hill above Katha. There is something almost like a stalactite cave, formed by the drippings of water from the rocks, which solidify as they descend.

Salt is found throughout the hills which derive their name from this mineral, concealed in the red marl which gives to the range one of its most characteristic features. Experiment has shown that the salt is exceedingly pure, and as the average thickness of the beds is probably not less than 150 feet, the supply would appear to be inexhaustible. During the Sikh times the revenue from the source was realized by means of farms, but owing to general bad management, seldom exceeded six lakhs of rupees a year, the price of the mineral at the mines being then one rupee per maund. Since the introduction of British rule the increase in this branch of revenue has been very rapid; this has partly been due to the price having been gradually raised from two to three rupees per maund, but much more to improved administration, which has rendered smuggling impossible, and which, by the construction of good roads, by the removal of all restrictions, and by ensuring the safety of life and property, has given an impulse to trade such as it never received before. The revenue derived from salt, however, though collected in the Shahpur district, cannot properly be credited to it, as the mineral, though abundant in the Shahpur portion of the range, is worked chiefly in that part of it which lies in the Jhelum district, in the Gazetteer of which district the mines are fully described.

There is only one salt mine worked in this district; it is situated at Warcha. The Warcha mine is a large cave, supported by pillars at irregular intervals. The room worked is twenty feet thick. A portion of the mine was worked by the Sikhs; this portion is now somewhat dangerous owing to only a thin layer of salt having been

Chapter I.

Descriptive.

Geology.

Mineral products,
salt.

Warcha Salt Mine.

Chapter I.
Descriptive.
Wāreha Salt Mine.

left between the roof and the marl, and to no pillars having been left to support the roof. There are two entrances to the mine, the old Sikh entrance and a drift made in 1869. On the southern side of the mine are two large natural shafts, which throw a certain amount of light into it, and allow of its being thoroughly ventilated. The miners are paid at the rate of Rs. 3-12-0 per 100 maunds for the salt excavated by them.

Forty-four families are employed in the work.

The outturn of salt has been as follows for the past five years:—

						Maunds.
1878-79	129,133
1879-80	102,072
1880-81	169,819
1881-82	119,641
1882-83	167,550

An inspector has charge of the mine at Wāreha, and has also charge of the preventive establishment of the Wāreha section, and an assistant inspector is stationed at Katha. There are forty guard posts, at which are stationed 169 men. This includes the establishment at the two head-quarters. The annual cost of the mine and guarding establishment amounts to Rs. 21,016 per annum.

Saltpetre.

Saltpetre is found native mixed with the earth throughout the *bār*. It is met with in the greatest quantities in the earth of the numerous mounds called *ahlis* scattered over the district, marking the sites of what probably were once thriving towns and villages. The salt is obtained by lixiviation of this earth. Water having been passed through it, the solution is afterwards boiled in large iron pans, and is then allowed to cool and crystallize. The average produce of a pan is thirty *sars*, and as the manufacture of saltpetre is only carried on during the seven dry months, the annual outturn of each cauldron may be roughly set down as one hundred and fifty maunds. The Crimean war appears to have given a great impulse to the trade in this salt, for the number of licenses to work pans began rapidly to increase from 1855, when they were 649, till they amounted, in 1858, to no less than 4,856, representing an annual production of 728,400 maunds, or 26,014 tons, the selling price being at this period four rupees per maund. From that time the trade has been steadily declining, so that in 1866 only 185 licenses were taken out, and the salt could be had for a little more than one rupee per maund.

Sajji.

Sajji, or impure carbonate of soda, is produced by incineration of the *Salsola griffithsii*, one of the many species of *Idna* plant, which is found in great quantities in the *bār* south and east of the road leading from Lahore to the Frontier. The mode of obtaining the crude soda is almost identical with that adopted by the Spaniards in the manufacture of the same substance, called by them *barilla*. Circular pits, five or six feet in diameter, and about two feet deep, are dug at convenient distances, according to the requirements of the crops, and into these half-dried sheaves of the plant are thrown and set on fire, fresh sheaves being constantly added until the pit is nearly filled with ashes in a state of semi-fusion. The operation lasts about twenty-four hours, and the quantity burned during this

time is about two hundred bundles, each of about half a maund. The contents of the pit are then well stirred and allowed to cool, a little dry earth being scattered over the surface to prevent evaporation. The pits are opened on the fifth or sixth day, when the *sajji* is found concreted together into a hard cellular mass. The selling price of *sajji* is now one rupee two annas a maund; during the Sikh time the price varied from two to three maunds for the rupee. *Sajji* is exported from this district chiefly to the north and east, towards Ráwalpindi, Siálkot, and Kashmír. It is extensively used in the manufacture of soap, paper, and glass, and as a substitute for soap by the poorer classes; it is also largely employed in the process of bleaching; lastly native practitioners use it as a medicine. The demand for *sajji* has been steadily rising, and the sums realized from farming the monopoly of its manufacturing increased in a few years prior to 1866 from thirteen hundred to upwards of eight thousand rupees.

Lignite is found in small quantities in the Salt Range. It was tried on the Panjáb Railway, and answered fairly well, but the price at Lahore was too high, and the quantity found too small for it to be practically useful. The cost of coal on the spot is Rs. 5 per 100 maunds.

Iron and lead are known to exist in the Salt Range within the boundaries of the district; but not in sufficient quantity to render their working remunerative. Gypsum and mica are also found in considerable quantities in the same hills.

Tigers, leopards, and wolves are found in the Salt Range; the first rarely, the last two commonly. Snakes are common in all parts of the district. In the five years ending 1882 rewards amounting to Rs. 3,285 were paid for the destruction of 3 tigers, 11 leopards, 742 wolves, and 2,247 snakes.

The jungle tracts of the *bár* and the rugged slopes of the Salt Range afford cover for game of different classes. In the *bár* and flat country generally are found quail, partridges, sandgrouse, hare, *talár* or bustard, antelope, wild duck, *kunj* (or *kúlan*), and wild geese. In the hilly tract the *urial* (or wild sheep) and *chikor* (hill partridge) are found. *Kúlan*, wild geese, and duck are most abundant in the winter months, quails in spring. The lakes of the Salt Range are favourite abodes of the scarlet flamingo. The capture of the *talár* is a favourite sport amongst natives. They are taken in large numbers by being driven along quietly with the aid of a bullock, till they reach a net which has been previously placed vertically in front of them; on reaching it they become confused and frightened and are readily caught.

The flora of the Salt Range will be found fully discussed in a note furnished by the Forest Department inserted in Chapter IV, Section A.

Chapter I.
Descriptive.
Sajji.

Lignite.

Iron, lead, and
gypsum.

Wild animals.
Sport.

Flora.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY AND LEADING FAMILIES.

Chapter II.
History and
Leading Families.
Former prosperity.

Prior to the fall of the Mughal dynasty but little is known of the history of this part of the country. One thing however is certain, that at some time anterior to the period of which records are extant, the face of the country presented a very different appearance to that which it now bears. The *bdr* tract between the Chenáb and the Jhelam, now jungle inhabited only by half-savage pastoral tribes, is thickly studded with mounds of earth covered by loose bricks and fragments of pottery, the sites of ancient towns and villages. In all, there are no less than 270 of these mounds in the *bdr*. There can be little doubt that the desertion of these old sites is due to a gradual sub-sidence of the water level. There are spots where the brickwork of old wells still existing, does not extend more than 25 feet in depth; while now, in the same place, water cannot be obtained within 60 feet of the surface, and even when found is in most cases so brackish as to be unfit for the use of man or beast. When this change took place it is at present impossible to say. It is well known that at the time of the Greek invasions the whole country was richly cultivated. One of Alexander's historians speaks of it as "teeming with population." Local tradition points to the time of Akbar as the period of greatest prosperity, and a similar tradition exists regarding a similar state of things in the neighbouring district of Gújránwála. The appearance of the mounds themselves on the other hand would point to a more remote period. One of the more immediate and recent causes of the depression of the water level, may be the changes which are known to have taken place in the course of the rivers Jhelum and Chenáb, both having flowed, speaking with reference to this Doáb, much further inland than they now do; but this would only help to explain the phenomenon in its relation to this district, whereas the same has been observed in many other parts of the Panjáb. Such has been the effect of this change upon the population, that at the time of annexation the *bdr* and *thal* country was found peopled only by a few tribes purely pastoral in their habits, subsisting entirely upon the produce of their flocks and herds, having no fixed abodes, but moving from place to place, wherever a good supply of grass was to be found. It is only of late years that they may be seen gradually settling down into permanent habitations, and availing themselves of the opportunities now and then offered by the seasons, of adding to their other resources by cultivating the patches of good soil. A marked change has lately taken place in this respect, and with the growth of settled habits an attachment to the soil is being rapidly developed.

Antiquities.

The principal antiquities of the district are shown on p. 16 in a tabular form. They have been described by General Cunningham in his Archaeological Survey Reports, V, 79 to 85, and XIV, 33 to 41

and in his *Ancient Geography*, pages 155 to 159. Of them by far the most interesting are the ruins at Amb, of what was probably a Buddhist temple, enclosed within a fort built on the summit of a hill, at the foot of which a clear stream of water issues from a passage lined with masonry, constructed evidently by the same hands which raised the imposing structure above. The ruins of a massive masonry dam at the entrance of the Katha Pass, evidently built to economize and distribute the waters of this torrent, are suggestive of what might be done again with advantage. This and two large *bdolis* at Bola and Wán Kaila are attributed to Sher Sháh, and the tradition is not improbably true, as he is known to have passed a great part of his brief reign in the Punjab.

The political history of the district may conveniently be divided into three periods. The first, that which preceded the downfall of the Moghal Empire; the second, the brief space occupied by the successive inroads of the Afgháns, followed by the rapid acquisition of power by the Sikhs; and the last, the period during which, by a happy admixture of boldness and artifice, the young leader of the Sukar Chakia *misit* succeeded in making himself master of the whole of the Punjab, from the banks of the Sutlej to the mountains of Sulemán.

The first may be dismissed with a few words. A tract of country not naturally rich, and far removed from the high road between Hindustán and the countries beyond its northern frontier, would not be the scene of events of sufficient magnitude to leave a lasting impress on the minds of the people, and hence tradition has preserved little that refers to so remote a period. All that is known is, that during the latter years of Muhammad Sháh's reign the affairs of Bhera, and the surrounding country as far south as Sháhpur, were administered by Rájá Salámat Rai, a Khatri of the Anand clan; * that Khusháb and its dependencies were under the management of Nawáb Ahmadýár Khán; that the tracts lying to the south of the district, and along the Chenáb, formed part of the territory delegated to the charge of Máharája Kaurn Mal, then governor of Multán; and that *that* formed part of the *jágír* of the descendants of the Biloch founders of the two Deras. To this period succeeded one of anarchy. The weakness of the Moghal government had invited attack from without, and fostered insurrection within: wave after wave of invasion for nearly thirty years poured down over the defenceless country, and in the intervals the Sikhs made good every opportunity afforded them by the weakness of the Government, to enrich themselves at the expense of their more peaceable neighbours. The remote position of this tract of country did not altogether save it from the calamities incident on such a state of things. In the year 1757 a force under Núr-ud-dín, Bamizai, deputed by Ahmad Sháh to assist his son Timúr in repelling the Mahrattas, crossing the river Jhelum at Khusháb, marched up the left bank of the river. The proceedings of this man may be taken as a type of the excesses committed by the invading armies; and some idea will be formed

Chapter II.
History and
Leading Families

Antiquities.

Political history
divisible into three
periods.

First or
Moghal period.

Second or Afghán
Period. Rise of the
Sikhs.

* The descendants of this man still reside in Bhera, and plume themselves on the greatness of their ancestor.

Chapter II.
History and
Leading Families.
Antiquities.

Name of Locality.	Name of object of antiquarian interest.	Description of the same.
Ohara	Jama Masjid ...	A fine old masjid of the time of Sher Shah contemporary with the founding of the city, A. D. 947. The mosque has lately been restored.
Vijhi, (Tallil Phera)	Kaba Pind near Misal.	One of the most conspicuous of the numerous mounds which abound in every direction throughout the district and tell of a much lighter state of prosperity than any now existing. It attests the truth of the Greek accounts of hundreds of large cities and a country teeming with population (see Strabo Lib. XV., Chapter I., section 33).
Tallil Nurra ...	Tomb of Shah Nuh-al Alam.	The ruins show that once a very large town existed here. In the <i>Jaiz-ul-Mulk</i> of the "Fakir Dohra Jach" given in the "Ain-ul-Akbari" the Mahal of Nurra is stated to have had a brick fort, and to have paid a revenue of 424,100 duns or Rs. 1,17,225. Among the ruins here is the tomb of Nuh-al Alam. This place has obtained celebrity as the scene of a romance which rivals the story of "Laila and Majnun" in extravagance. Not a peasant in the province but knows the tale of "Ranjha and Nihir."
Hadali	A <i>Shahi</i> masjid and tank.	Three wells are all attributed to Sher Shah. The former is one of several such wells called in the language of the country <i>Hads</i> . The story goes, that the Emperor, during a royal progress through the Punjab, caused one of these numerous wells to be sunk at every stage. The tank covers about an acre of land—it is now however completely choked up; its name for Nurra evidently refers to the pillars Nurra, the remains of which are still visible.
Gunjal	<i>Hadi</i>	The same as the <i>Adali</i> at Hadali and said to have been constructed at the same period. The two villages of Gurjal and Utra, separated from each other by about a quarter of a mile only, are correctly called <i>Warkala</i> from this well.
Katha gorge ...	Saighara ...	The remains of a mighty dam for distributing the waters of the Vahi or Katha torrent. The work is attributed to Sher Shah; some refer its construction to a more remote period.
Ditto	Nar Singh, Phor	A very ancient Hindu shrine, dating according to their tradition from one of Vishnu's Avatars when he descended in the form of a fish. "Nar Singh" pictures are made in it all the year round, and <i>Naaga</i> held on certain fixed dates. Materials of brick built a temple here some fifty years ago.
Amb	Hindu ruin ...	An imposing old ruin, with every appearance of being of Buddhist construction. Beyond the ruins are to be seen what are evidently the remains of an old fort. Tradition places the date of its erection at five hundred years prior to the Muhammadan era, but it is probably older.
Shah Yusuf ...	Khinguhi of Shah Yusuf.	A mosque, said to have been erected A. D. 947 or 948 years ago, by a holy man of that name, a stranger from the west, to whom the charity of the inhabitants of Mingwal assigned sufficient land for his support. His descendants still hold the land, and reside on the spot. The building, though of elegant form is of very moderate dimensions, and is cruciform.
Panj Pir	Khengkah, Nagar-sa giant's tomb.	The graves here are of extraordinary dimensions, nine yards long, as the name imports. They are built on the ruined site of what must have been a large city, in which tradition assigns a fabulous antiquity, nothing less than five thousand years. The Hindu story is, that this is one of the resting places of the called Pandas, and hence call it Panj Pandhi, but the Muhammadans, according to their custom, while reverencing the site as holy, have changed its title to Panj Pir to make it harmonize with their language and religion.
Chak Sannu ...	Chak Sannu ...	This, like the last, is the remains of a once flourishing town, but probably of more modern date. It was founded by a once powerful tribe named Talla, of which a few impoverished members still reside on the spot. The town was burned and razed with the ground by Nur-ud-din Ghazni, one of Ahmad Shah's generals.

of the amount of misery caused by these invasions. Nur-ud-din, finding that the inhabitants would not pay the large ransoms demanded of them, successively plundered and laid waste with fire and

sword three of the largest towns of the district. Two of these, Bhera and Miāni, rose again on their ruins, without however completely recovering the shock they had sustained; but of the third, Chak Sānu, the foundations alone are to be seen.

About this time Nawāb Ahmadyār Khān died, and Khushāb was added to the territory under the charge of Raja Salāmat Rai. But the latter had not held it many years before he was treacherously put to death by Abbās Khān, Khattak, who held possession of the Salt Range and Pind Dādan Khān, on the part of Ahmad Shāh. Abbās Khān then seized Bhera; but his attempt to make himself master of the surrounding country was foiled by the determination shown by the widow of the murdered governor, who shut herself up in the fort of Chāwa, while her nephew following her example, held out in his stronghold of Fatehgarh, close to Bhera itself. These events occurred in 1760; and before Abbās Khān had time to subdue his opponents, he was himself thrown into prison as a revenue defaulter, when the former status was restored, Fateh Singh obtaining possession of the tract previously held by his uncle, and Muhammad Nawāz Khān succeeding his father in the government of the country north of the Jhelum.

After the final successes of the Sikh common-wealth against Ahmad Shāh in 1767, the whole of the Salt Range was overrun and appropriated by Chattar Singh of the Sukar-Chakia *misal*, while the Bhangis taking possession of the tract of country between those hills and the Chenāb, as far nearly as Sābiwāl, parcelled it out among themselves after their usual fashion. The division of the portion comprised within this district was as follows: the *zails* of Mithā and Mīsa chūm, as dependencies of Kādirābād, were retained as their own share by Ganda Singh and Jhanda Singh, the leaders of the *misal*. Miāni was assigned to Tārāh Singh, and Bhera with Ahmedābād fell to the lot of Mān Singh, from whom they passed in 1769 to Dharma Singh and Charat Singh, of the same confederacy.

The Muhammadan chieftains of Sābiwāl, Mithā Tiwāna and Khushāb had some time previously assumed independence, and though hard pressed, were able generally to resist the encroachments of their new neighbours, the Sikhs. South of the Jhelum, however, the Bhangis had succeeded in wresting from Muhammad Khān of Sābiwāl the greater part of his possessions; but after the chief's death, his son Fateh Khān drove out the Sikhs, and by degrees established his authority over nearly the whole of the tract afterwards included in the Shahpur *taluk*. But these changes brought no repose: night was the only rest of right; and, in the absence of any general controlling authority, the country became a prey to the ambition of rival chiefs struggling for supremacy. It would be tedious and profitless to record all this petty warfare. Only those occurrences need be mentioned from which permanent changes of possession resulted.

Across the river Jhelum, the Tiwānas under Mallik Sher Khān made themselves masters of Nūrpur and the surrounding country, and after the death of Gūl Jehannia of Warcha, succeeded in establishing a partial authority over the Awāns along the base of the Salt Range. They also wrested Shekhowāl and several other

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villages on the right bank of the Jhelum from the Beloch Chief of Sāhiwāl. But the Mallik's attempt to reduce Khushāb was unsuccessful, for although Lāl Khān was killed in the defence of the town, the Tiwānas were driven off, and Jāfir Khān, the deceased chieftain's son and successor, thenceforth remained in possession, until Ranjit Singh absorbed the *talūka* into the rest of his dominions.

South of the Jhelum, as described above, the Bhangīs had possessed themselves of the whole Doāb east of Shāhpur; while to the west of that place as far as Nihang the country owed the authority of the Chief of Sāhiwāl. But in Shāhpur itself, a colony of Sayads, under Ghulām Shāh, established a semi-independent authority,* and this they were allowed to retain unmolested by their more powerful neighbours, owing doubtless to the reverence in which they were held as the descendants of a renowned saint. The remainder of the Doāb, to the junction of the two rivers, was held by the Siāl Chiefs of Jhang, Izzat Baksh Rehān, a powerful *zenīnādd* of those parts, being their Deputy in Kālowāl. Such was the status of possession when the Sukar-Chakia confederacy under Mahā Singh began to acquire the ascendancy, and the power of the Bhangīs to decline. The subsequent history of the district consists of a series of encroachments on the part of Mahā Singh and his renowned son Ranjit Singh, until the whole country was incorporated with the dominions of the latter.

Rise of Ranjit
Singh.

By the deaths of Sirdārs Jhanda Singh and Ganda Singh, the Bhangī confederacy was left without a head; and Mahā Singh, having joined his forces to those of the Kaubia *mīr*, found no difficulty in making himself master of Kādirābād. By this event, which occurred in 1781, the *talūkas* of Mīdh and Mūnā fell into his hands, and two years after, he succeeded in taking Miāni and its dependencies from Tārā Singh, Bhangī. For some time now there was a pause in the tide of conquest. Ten years after the event last recorded, Mahā Singh died, leaving his son Ranjit Singh, a boy of thirteen years; and it was long before the latter had sufficiently established his authority round Lahore, to allow him to think of making conquests so far from the capital. But the process of annexation though slow was sure, and the wily young chief was never in want of a pretext for adding to his possessions. Bhera was coveted, and the reason assigned for interference in its affairs, was the tyranny of Jodh Singh, who had succeeded to the family conquests on the death of his father Dhanna Singh; with this plausible excuse, Ranjit Singh marched from Miāni in 1803, and having obtained possession of the fort by means of a stratagem, the person of Jodh Singh was secured, and the young Mahārāja entered unopposed into possession of the country lying on both sides of the river as far as Jhauriān.

Conquest of Sāhiwāl
and Khushāb.

The next move was against the Biloch Chiefs of Sāhiwāl and Khushāb. In 1804 Ranjit Singh had placed the former under contribution, and the tribute, which at first was almost nominal, was afterwards raised to twelve thousand rupees a year. The increased demand was not met with promptitude, and this furnished the Mahārāja with the

* The descendants of Ghulām Shāh and his father Nathū Shāh still hold the greater part of the land in Shāhpur and its neighbourhood.

pretext he was in search of. Accordingly, in 1809, a force was organized, and Ranjít Singh marched for Sāhiwāl. Having taking up a position at Māngowāl, one march from that place, he sent Sirdār Attar Singh to bring the Biloeh Chief to his presence. But Fateh Khān, taught by experience, suspected treachery, and excused himself from obeying the call. On receiving, however, the Sirdār's solemn assurance that no harm should befall the boy, he sent his son Langar Khān with a handsome offering to the camp of the Māharāja. To divert suspicion, Ranjít Singh received the boy very graciously, and having dismissed him with rich presents and the assurance of his continued friendship for his father, he retraced his steps and marched against Jōsir Khān. Fateh Khān, falling into the trap laid for him, dismissed his forces to their homes, and before he had time to make fresh preparations for resistance, Ranjít Singh, flushed with his success before Khushāb, of which place he had made himself master after a siege of only eight days, suddenly appeared before Sāhiwāl and took the place by a *coup-de-main*. The chief was himself carried off a prisoner to Lahore, and the now conquered territory given in *jāgir* to the heir-apparent, Kharrak Singh. Thus fell Khushāb and Sāhiwāl; and at the same time the smaller possessions of the Shāhpur Strads and of Budh Singh, Bhangī, around Bakkhar, were added to the rapidly increasing territory under the sway of the Māharāja. In the year following, the *taléelat* of Faruka and Kālowāl fell into his hands, together with the remainder of the country which had been subject to the authority of the Sial Chiefs of Jhang.

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There remained now only the possessions of the Malliks of Mitha Tiwāna, and these, too, soon shared the common fate. A well equipped force was despatched against them under Mir Divān Chand in 1816. The Tiwāna Mallik retired to Nūrpur, in the heart of the *thal*, thinking that the scarcity of water and supplies might prevent the Sikh army from effecting its object. But all obstacles disappeared before the energy of the Sikh commander, who sank wells as he advanced, so that after a time the Tiwānas, finding resistance hopeless, abandoned the place and took refuge with their old enemy, the Nawāb of Dera Ismāil Khān, who had not the generosity however to forget their former rivalry in pity for the fallen fortunes of the Tiwāna Chiefs, but plundered them and turned them out. After this, for nearly two years, Mallik Khān Muhammad and his sons wandered from place to place, subsisting on the charity of their neighbours; but finding this kind of life insupportable, they determined on making an attempt to recover their former possessions. An appeal made to their fellow clansmen was heartily responded to, and, at the head of this irregular force, they appeared suddenly before the walls of their native town. The Sikh garrison, completely taken by surprise, abandoned the place and fled, and the Malliks were once more masters of land of their ancestors. Their triumph was however but short-lived. In the early part of 1818, the ousted governor returned with a strong force, and the Malliks were a second time compelled to fly. The possessions of the Tiwāna Chiefs were then given in *jāgir* to the famous Harri Singh, Nalūn, and were held by him till his death at Peshāwar on the 30th April, 1837.

Conquest of the
Tiwāna country.

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The attempt made by Khān Muhammad served to convince Ranjit Singh that it would be bad policy to drive the Tiwānas to desperation; when therefore the Mallik repaired to Lahore to tender his submission he was well received, and a liberal provision made for the support of the family. Villages on the left banks of the Jhelum, yielding ten thousand rupees a year, were assigned in *jāgīr*, and several of the chief's relations and dependants were taken into the service of the State. Matters remained in this state, the elders living quietly on their *jāgīr*, while the younger members of the family with their contingents served with the army whenever called on to do so, till the death of Harri Singh before Jamrud. In the interim the old Malik Khān Muhammad, and his elder son Ahmadyār Khān had died, and Mallik Khudayār Khān, the younger son, with his nephew Kadir Baksh, were thus left as the representatives of the family. The former had had the good fortune, some time before, to place Rāja Gulāb Singh under a deep obligation, which resulted in a close friendship between them, and was the means of introducing the Malik at court, where, befriended by the Rāja and the latter's brother, the prime minister, Khudayār Khān, and his son, the well known Fateh Khān, soon rose to positions of great favour.

Fateh Khān was thus favourably situated when the news of the death of Harri Singh reached Lahore. He lost no time in obtaining from his patron, in his own name, the farm of the ancestral *talūkas* of Mitha Tiwāna; and his father dying about the same time, he was left the acknowledged head of the tribe. From this time till the unprovoked aggressions of the Sikh army led to the first Sikh war, Fateh Khān took a prominent part in the politics of the country, and his love of intrigue found ample scope in the confusion into which the affairs of the State were thrown after the deaths, in rapid succession, of Ranjit Singh, his son and grandson. For some time Fateh Khān remained faithful to the side of his patron Rāja Dhiān Singh, and reaped the reward of his attachment in ever increasing grants of territory in farm. But ere long the prime minister was assassinated, and suspicion of complicity in the deed having fallen on the Malik, he retired to Bannu to escape the vengeance of Rāja Hira Singh, the son of the murdered man. Soon after, emerging from his retreat, the restless Malik created a diversion in favour of Sardār Jawāhar Singh, to whose party he had now attached himself, by raising an insurrection in his native country and making himself master of Mitha Tiwāna; but the expedition failed, and Fateh Khān, being ejected from the town by a Sikh force under Sardār Mangal Singh, was forced to take refuge in Bahāwalpur, where he remained, till the death of Hira Singh, in 1844, allowed him to come forth from his asylum.

The rest of the Malik's story is soon told. During Jawāhar Singh's brief tenure of power, Fateh Khān enjoyed unbounded authority, the services of so unscrupulous a partisan being, in the existing state of affairs, beyond price. But bad times were coming for the Mallik. His patron was put to death by the army, and his enemies, headed by Rājas Teja Singh and Dīna Nāth, succeeded to power, and were not slow in gratifying their malice. He was called on to give an account of the revenues of the large tracts of country of which he had held the management, and was brought in a defaulter

to the extent of several lakhs of rupees. Unable to meet this heavy demand, he was thrown into prison, where he remained till Lieutenant (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, thinking he would be of use on the frontier, obtained his liberation and ultimately, when the Multán rebellion broke out, sent him to relieve Lieutenant Taylor in the charge of Bannu. The Sikh troops soon after broke out into open mutiny, and besieged Fateh Khán with his Muhammadan levies in the fort. The Mallik held out bravely, till the supply of water failed, when, seeing that the defence could be no longer protracted, he came out and was shot down while boldly challenging the best man of the Sikhs to meet him in single combat. Such was the fitting end to the career of a man who had in cold blood taken the lives of perhaps more of his fellow creatures than any other of his time.

When this occurred, Malik Fateh Sher Khán, the son of Fateh Khán, and Malik Sher Muhammad Khán, the son of the deceased Malik's first cousin Kádir Baksh, were serving under Major Edwardes' orders before Multán. Both did good service; the former remaining with Major Edwardes, while the latter was detached to follow on the tracks of the Bannu force, then in full march to join Sher Singh, and to endeavour to restore order in his native district. In the execution of this commission, Sher Muhammad Khán drove out the Sikh garrisons, and made himself master in rapid succession of the principal towns and strongholds in this part of the country beginning with Mitha Tiwána and ending with Sáhiwál; and added to his other services, by collecting a portion of the revenue and remitting it to Major Taylor, who was then employed in restoring order along the frontier. Nor must the services of Malik Sáhib Khán, the uncle of Sher Muhammad Khán, and a gallant member of this family, be forgotten. He too served with Major Edwardes' Irregulars, and was afterwards employed with Sardár Langar Khán of Sáhiwál and others, in putting to flight the force headed by the rebel Bhai Maharáj Singh, and in reducing Chiniót. In short, this family has always shown itself actively loyal in seasons of disturbance, and it is only in times of peace, when the naturally jealous dispositions of its members have full play, that their internal feuds render them a source of annoyance to all around them.

After the fall of Multán and the overthrow of the Sikhs at Gujrát, the Tiwána Malliks had time to look about them. They knew that they were to be rewarded, but the question was, who was to receive the lion's share as the head of the tribe? Sher Muhammad Khán claimed the turban, as the descendant of the elder branch, while Fateh Sher Khán rested his title on the acknowledged pre-eminence of his father, Fateh Khán. The dispute was eventually settled through the mediation of friends. It was decided that in point of rank they should be on an equality one with the other, and that in all the material benefits that might accrue to them as representatives of the tribe, both should share alike, and this agreement has since been acted on.

The Tiwána Malliks have been well rewarded. Soon after annexation they preferred a claim to a fourth of the revenues of

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the Nūrpur and Mitha Tiwāna *talākas*, and in consideration of their loyalty and good services, the claim was admitted, and villages yielding Rs. 6,000 a year were granted in *jāgīr* to each, to be held by them and their heirs in perpetuity. In addition to these grants, life pensions of Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 3,240 were conferred respectively on Malik Fatch Sher Khān and Sher Muḥammad Khān; a pension of Rs. 480 a year was, at the same time, granted to Mallik Sāhib Khān. Lastly for their services during the mutinies, the Malliks obtained the following rewards: Malliks Fatch Sher Khān, and Shāhib Khān life *jāgīrs* of twelve hundred rupees each, and Malliks Sher Muḥammad Khān one of six hundred rupees. To these substantial gifts was annexed the much coveted and highly prized title of Khān Bahādur.

History of the Sāhi-
wāl Chiefs.

It is now time to return to Sardār Fatch Khān of Sāhiwāl, who was left a prisoner at Lahore. In accordance with his usual custom, Ranjīt Singh after a while released his prisoner, giving him a *jāgīr* first in Jhang and then in Ahmadābād, near Pind Dādan Khān, stipulating, however, that Fatch Khān was to remain at Court. But, after a life of independence, the Biloch chief was ill fitted to play the courtier, his proud spirit chafed at the confinement, and, like the Tiwāna Malik, he was tempted to strike a blow for independence. He applied to the Nawāb of Mankera for assistance. The request was favourably entertained, and the two chiefs, with their combined forces, actually started to attempt the recovery of Sāhiwāl. But fear of the consequences to himself of failure, overcame the Nawāb's desire to assist his fellow clansman, and abandoning Fatch Khān to his fate, he precipitately retreated to his stronghold of Mankera. Fatch Khān, seeing that he had committed himself beyond power of recall, and that now he had nothing to hope for from Ranjīt Singh, fled to Multān and soon after took refuge in Bahāwalpur, where he died in 1819.

Langar Khān, the son of the deceased Chief, a lad of fourteen years of age, was left a pensioner on the bounty of the Nawāb, and remained at Bahāwalpur till 1822, when Ranjīt Singh hearing, while on a visit at Multān, that Fatch Khān was dead, sent for Langar Khān, and gave him a *jāgīr* of two thousand rupees a year with a personal allowance of three rupees a day. The *jāgīr* was afterwards (in 1838) increased to three thousand rupees, and the allowance to five rupees a day. Langar Khān with his men formed part of the Sikh contingent which, under Captain (afterwards Sir H.) Lawrence, accompanied General McCaskill's division in Pollock's advance on Kābul. Langar Khān also served with distinction under Major Edwardes' orders during the Multān rebellion. After annexation, as a reward for these services, the family *jāgīr*, valued at three thousand rupees a year, was released in perpetuity, and a life pension of twelve hundred rupees granted to Langar Khān. This Chief died in 1853, and was followed to his grave in 1862 by the eldest of his three sons Muḥammad Haiāt Khān. The second son Mobārīk Khān, is now the representative of the family.

The Lāmbha family.

There is yet one set of circumstances to be referred to, and then the history of the principal families of this part of the country may be said to be complete. It will be remembered that on Ahmad Shāh's

final retirement, the Sûkar Chakins, under the grandfather of Ranjît Singh, possessed themselves of the greater part of the Salt Range. The status in this respect remained undisturbed till 1827, when the members of this confederacy, among whom the conquered tract had been originally parcelled out, having fallen out among themselves, Ranjît Singh resumed their shares and divided them among his favourites; the Sûn *talûka* falling to the share of Hari Singh, by whom it was held till his death in 1837. On the occurrence of this event, it was given by the Mâharâja to his old friend and playfellow, and afterwards one of the most successful of his generals, Sirdar Gurmukh Singh, Lâmbha, and it was one of the few gifts of which this brave old man had not been despoiled by the envy and hatred of the Jammû family when we took the country. The majority of the villages constituting the *talûka* were then resumed, but the estate of Nowshera, worth rather more than four thousand rupees a year, was released in perpetuity. Sardar Gurmukh Singh died in 1853, and was succeeded by his son, Attar Singh, the present representative of the family, who resides in the Gujrât district, where he holds other *jâgirs*.

The following account of the events of 1857 is taken from the Punjab Mutiny Report. This station is the head-quarters of the customs line in connection with the Salt Range. Mr. Wright, the Collector of Customs, brought to the assistance of Mr. Ouseley, Deputy Commissioner, a very valuable reinforcement in the shape of 100 of the men of the preventive service, who, being all armed and natives of the Punjab or else Pathâns, created a valuable counterpoise to the mutinous company of the 46th Native Infantry, which formed the treasury guard. The transit of the 39th Native Infantry through the district on their way from Jhelum to Dera Ismail Khân caused a panic amongst the people of Shâhpur. Strange rumours began to circulate about these men, valuables were buried, people became unsettled, and the commanding officer of the regiment feared to come through Shâhpur while the company of the 46th was there, expressing a hope that Mr. Ouseley had not much treasure under his care. On the evening of the 22nd May a strong guard of police marched into the treasury with three European officers of the station, and took possession of all the surplus money, amounting to Rs. 2,50,000. Part of this was forthwith sent towards Jhelum and part towards Dera Ismail Khân. Under orders which were subsequently received the Jhelum consignment was recalled; but the move which took it in the first instance from the 46th was a most ably planned one, as the Hindustâni troops were at the same time turned out of the treasury fort, which was garrisoned by the police battalion, fortified and provisioned, and a well sunk to supply drinking water.

At one time the villages of the *ûdr* were said to be in an unquiet state. Mr. Ouseley posted ten police horse on the confines of the tract of land so called, and, as no mutiny of the sepoys took place in the district, the wild tribes remained peaceful even when their brethren in the Multân Division broke out. The mutiny of a portion of the 9th Irregular Cavalry affected this country so far as that it called out the Deputy Commissioner, two or three of the customs officers, and a number of the police. The mutineers were pursued

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by the police; the soldiery and district officers of five or six districts were on their trail and gave them no rest until Captain Hockin came up with them in the Jhang district and cut them up. A Hindu-tani clerk in the customs office was detected in an attempt to unite Hindus and Muhammadans against our Government. He was apprehended, convicted and punished.

A force of local levies was raised, thus affording vent to the warlike spirit of the martial tribes of the district who chafed at inaction, and probably would have fratted us had not a legitimate object been given them on which to spend their strength. Of these levies upwards of 1,000 horse were raised from among the Tiwānas alone; and Mr. Ouseley describes his relief at their departure as great.

Status at annexation.

Probably there is no district in the Punjab, the territorial limits and constitution of which have undergone so many changes as that of Shāhpur. At annexation, the whole of the Chaj Doāb, from the boundary of the Jammū territory to the junction of the rivers Jhelum and Chenāb, was placed under the charge of Mr. E. C. Dayley, and administered by him as one district.

First formation of the district.

But the charge was found too extensive. Accordingly, in June of the same year (1849), this tract of country was divided and formed into the two districts of Gujrāt and Shāhpur; the latter comprising the four *talukdārships* of Miāni, Bhera, Sāhiwāl and Kādīrpur, to which were added the three lowest *zails* of the *talukdārship* of Kādīrābād, viz., Mithi, Ahmadnagar and Kalowāl on the Chenāb. As time wore on, however, and our acquaintance with the newly conquered country became closer, defects were discovered in the first apportionments of territory into circles of administration, and in respect to Shāhpur and the surrounding districts speedily led to changes. The first took place in 1851, when the whole *talukdārship* of Kādīrpur was transferred to Jhang, on the ground that the *talūqas* of which it was composed had always been subordinate to that place, that it was more conveniently situated with respect to the head-quarters of that district, and that the inhabitants were chiefly Siāls, closely connected with others of the same tribe in Jhang. For somewhat similar reasons, the *talūqa* of Khushāb was made over to Shāhpur from Leiah, from the commencement of the financial year 1853-54, and the following year saw the transfer back to this district of the Farukh *talūqa*.

Changes become necessary.

The Kādīrpur *talukdārship* transferred to Jhang

Khushāb and Farukh are received,

Constitution of the district in 1853-54.

Mitha Tiwāna received from Leiah.

The district now consisted of the three *talukdārships* of Bhera, Sāhiwāl, and Kalowāl, of which all but the narrow strip made up of the trans-Jhelum *parganahs* of Khushāb, Girot and Jauna, attached to the Sāhiwāl *talukdārship*, were situated between that river and the Chenāb. Presently, however, further additions were made to the district. Early in the year 1857, as the Chief Commissioner was marching across the Sindh-Sāgar Doāb, the leading men of Mitha Tiwāna came to him in a body praying that the *talūqa* might be transferred to Shāhpur; urging as their reason for desiring the change the great distance from the head-quarters of their own district (Leiah), and the comparative proximity of Shāhpur. The application was favourably entertained, and the transfer took place from the commencement of that financial year. A still more important revision,

of territorial jurisdictions was made during this year. A difficulty had always been experienced in providing for the effectual administration of that portion of the Sindh Sāgar Doāb which lay within a radius of fifty miles from Kālābāgh. Circumstances originally led to the selection of Rāwalpindi, Jhelum, and Leiah as sites for stations, and between these places the intervening territory was parcelled out in 1848 as best it might be; but soon it became apparent that they were far too remotely situated to allow of the exercise from them of an efficient control over this tract; and a proposition to create a fourth district having been negatived on the score of expense, the result, as regards this district, was the transfer to it from Jhelum of the following *talūqas* and villages:—

In the Salt Range.	{ The whole of Taluqa Sūn ...	19 villages.
	{ " " of " Khabbakki ...	6 "
	{ Part of " Nūrpur Sehti ...	4 "
North of ditto.	{ " of " Jabbi ...	8 "
	{ The whole of " Myāi ...	13 "
	{ Part of " Pakkhar ...	4 "
South of ditto.	{ The whole of " Katha ...	5 "
	{ Part of " Ahmadābād ...	6 "

In all sixty-five villages, paying a revenue of nearly a lac of rupees.

These extensive additions to the area of the district trans-Jhelum, having rendered the creation of a fourth *tahsil* on that side of the river absolutely necessary, the recently transferred tracts were formed into a new fiscal division, which received the name of the Jāba *tahsil* from the small village of that name in the Salt Range, where the head-quarters were established. From this time the limits of the district remained unaltered till the year 1861, when the revision of establishments led to the absorption of the Kalowāl *tahsil*, and the distribution of its villages between the Bhera and Chiniot *tahsils*; the latter a sub-collectorate of the Jhang district. The last and most important changes were carried out in 1862, when the *talūqa* of Nūrpur, in the *thal*, was received from Bannu, the Pakkhar *talūqa*, extending from Sakesar to Nikki, was cut off and attached to the Miānwālī *tahsil* of that district, and the remainder of the Jāba *tahsil* lying north of the Salt Range was transferred to Jhelum. These interchanges of territory between Shāhpur and the surrounding districts necessitated a complete remodelling of the interior fiscal divisions, which was effected by forming the whole of the country still attached to the district trans-Jhelum into one *tahsil*, the head-quarters being moved to Khushāb; and by the transfer from the Bhera to the Sāhiwāl *tahsil* of an equivalent for the villages which had been added to the former on the breaking up of the Kalowāl *tahsil*, as described above; at the same time, as Sāhiwāl was now no longer central, the head-quarters of that *tahsil* were removed to the *sadr* station.

In 1877-78 the following villages were transferred from the Shāhpur to the Gujranwālā district:—

- | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Thadda Mullahanwālā, | 4. Chhuni Rahmat Khān, |
| 2. Burj Fattu, | 5. Chhuni Mīr Mahomed, |
| 3. Chhuni Sultān, | 6. Burj Ghouse, |

Chapter II:
—
History and
Leading Families.
Further changes.

A fourth *tahsil*
created.

The Kalowāl *tahsil*
broken up.

Final changes.

Interior sub-divi-
sions remodelled.

Subsequent changes.

Chapter II.
History and
Leading Families.
 Development since
 annexation.

and in 1880-81 the two villages, Burj Rahma and Burj Jowaya, were transferred to Gujranwála, to which district they originally belonged, but had been cut off and attached to this in 1877-78.

Some conception of the development of the district since it came into our hands may be gathered from Table No. II, which gives some of the leading statistics for five-yearly periods, so far as they are available; while most of the other tables appended to this work give comparative figures for the last few years. In the case of Table No. II, it is probable that the figures are not always strictly comparable, their basis not being the same in all cases from one period to another. But the figures may be accepted as showing in general terms the nature and extent of the advance made.

District officers
 since annexation.

The following table shows the Deputy Commissioners who have held charge of the district since annexation with the period of their charge:—

Name.	From	To
Captain W. C. Birch	Annexation.	25th December 1852
Major G. G. Hollings	24th December 1852	3rd May 1856
G. Oswey, Esq.	31st May 1856	14th August 1859
W. H. Jones, Esq.	14th August 1859	14th November 1859
G. Oswey, Esq.	14th November 1859	9th March 1860
D. G. Macnab, Esq.	14th March 1860	20th August 1861
Captain J. B. Smyth.	21st August 1861	26th December 1861
Captain H. J. Hawes	26th December 1861	25th July 1862
Captain W. G. Davies	25th July 1862	11th December 1867
Captain J. W. H. Johnstone	12th December 1867	17th May 1870
Captain E. P. Gordon	14th May 1870	9th November 1870
Captain E. Corbyn	10th November 1870	8th March 1872
Captain R. P. Nisbet	9th March 1872	1st December 1872
Colonel H. A. Dwyer	2nd December 1872	10th September 1875
R. Clarke, Esq.	20th September 1875	18th November 1875
Colonel H. A. Dwyer	19th November 1875	26th March 1876
Captain E. C. Corbyn	27th March 1876	27th February 1878
Captain R. Barth-Jones	9th February 1878	20th March 1878
Captain E. C. Corbyn	21st March 1878	18th September 1879
Major W. J. Parker	10th September 1879	12th December 1879
J. Fuzelle, Esq.	13th December 1879	16th January 1882
Lieut.-Col. E. C. Corbyn	16th January 1882	to date.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

SECTION A.—STATISTICAL.

Table No. V gives separate statistics for each *tahsil* and for the whole district, of the distribution of population over towns and villages, over area, and among houses and families, while the number of houses in each town is shown in Table No. XLIII.

The statistics for the district as a whole give the following figures. Further information will be found in Chapter II of the Census Report of 1881 :—

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.
Distribution of population.

Percentage of total population who live in villages	...	Persons	...	87.76
		Males	...	87.97
		Females	...	87.52
Average rural population per village	...			568
Average total population per village and town	...			642
Number of villages per 100 square miles	...			14
Average distance from village to village, in miles	...			2.87
Density of population per square mile of	Total area	Total population	...	90
		Rural population	...	79
	Cultivated area	Total population	...	514
		Rural population	...	451
	Culturable area	Total population	...	108
		Rural population	...	94
Number of resident families per occupied house	...	Villages	...	1.85
		Towns	...	1.48
Number of persons per occupied house	...	Villages	...	5.84
		Towns	...	5.82
Number of persons per resident family	...	Villages	...	4.31
		Towns	...	3.94

In his District Report on the Census of 1881, the Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows :—

“The distribution of population in the district varies from 142 per square mile for the Bhera *tahsil* to only 53 in Khusháb, the populous portions being those lying on and near the banks of the rivers Jhelam and Chenáb, while the inlying portions consist of large tracts of grazing and waste lands with villages situated at long intervals. Bhera is the only *tahsil* with lands on both rivers, while Khusháb contains the largest amount of waste lands both in plains and hills, a large part of it being situated in the Salt Range.”

The following discussion by Colonel Davies of the population of the several physical tracts into which the district is divided, as ascertained at the Census of 1855, throws much light upon the local distribution of the people :—

“It is almost superfluous to state, after what has already been written, that the population is very unequally divided over this tract of country. The following table shows what the actual distribution is, the information being arranged according to the natural divisions of the district, the distinctive features of which have been described in the foregoing pages :—

Distribution of population by tracts.

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Distribution of
population by tracts.

Natural Divisions	POPULATION 1851 & D.			Area in square miles.	Average of pop. put on to the square mile.
	Hindus.	Musul- mans.	Total.		
Huhir	27,773	63,677	1,12,050	144	304
Nakha	17,455	49,914	67,369	47	143
Salt Range	1,720	26,411	28,131	34	74
Wahar	4,671	24,460	29,131	84	41
Uar	2,977	23,002	25,979	1,134	26
Total	54,596	1,63,464	2,18,060	4,742	74

"Thus it will be seen that the divisions of the district exclusively devoted to agriculture are far from being thinly inhabited. The population of the Salt Range appears less dense than it really is, owing to the cultivated and culturable area in that part bearing so small a ratio to the hills themselves, which are only used as pasture grounds for cattle. The land which comes under these two denominations is considerably less than one-seventh of the whole area of the range. In actual area it only amounts to 46,000 acres, while the inhabitants number 28,607 souls, so that in place of a thin population, we have the very dense one of 400 to the square mile. The fact is, that land throughout the Salt Range is very minutely divided, and is barely sufficient for the support of its inhabitants."

Distribution by
houses.

The Deputy Commissioner in his Census Report of 1851 thus discussed the distribution by houses and families:—

"The fact of so many houses being uninhabited should not be set down to any recent and sudden emigration or desertion by the people of their homes, but to the custom of the agricultural classes of building houses on their wells and lands situated at a distance from the towns or villages where their permanent abodes are; such outlying houses generally are only occupied in the hot season or during the day in the cold weather, and the custom is necessitated by the large areas in the district, the large amount of land to each village, and the distance of the more remotely situated land from the village *abādis*. It will be observed that the proportion of unoccupied to occupied houses is much greater in towns than in villages. In all the towns of this district there is a considerable agricultural population cultivating lands at a greater or less distance from the towns, and possessing houses on such lands, but returning to the town at night. In towns, moreover, shops are always unoccupied at night. In a very small degree some effect as regards the number of unoccupied houses may be attributed to whole families in certain parts of the district having temporarily left their homes for work on the railway or in consequence of the distress caused by a succession of bad harvests, but such persons had generally returned to their villages before the night of the Census, prospects having changed for the better.

"As to the total number of houses, I am inclined to think it has been under-reckoned, especially as regards the occupied houses. The increase is not in proportion to the increase of population, and the result is that the number of persons per house was for the Census of 1868 only four, while for the present census it is six for occupied houses.* It does not appear from the previous Census Report whether the former figures included unoccupied as well as occupied houses; but if it did not, I do not think that the increase of population per house has been quite so great as is hereby represented. The definition of a house was not well understood by the Census agency, and there was a tendency to treat whole enclosures, containing several houses, as a single house.

* But the house of 1868 corresponded with the family of 1851.—EDITOR.

"Considering, however, the habit of the brothers of a divided family and their descendants continuing to live in separate parts of the same courtyard long after they have split into separate families, perhaps the average of four persons per house given in the last Census returns was something under the mark, and the figures in the present table showing an average of $1\frac{1}{2}$ families per house are not so inaccurate; nor should they be taken as indicating the growth of overcrowding, especially in villages, where houses are open and cover a good deal of superficial space."

Table No. VI shows the principal districts and states with Migration and birth- which the district has exchanged population, the number of migrants place of population. in each direction, and the distribution of immigrants by *tahsils*.

Further details will be found in Table No. XI and in supplementary Tables C. to H. of the Census Report for 1881, while the whole subject is discussed at length in Part II of Chapter III of the same report. The total gain and loss to the district by migration is shown in the margin. The total number of residents born out of the district is 26,141, of whom 13,903 are males and 12,238 females. The number of people born in the district and living in other parts of the Punjab is 34,889, of whom 19,644 are males and 15,245 females. The figures below show the general distribution of the population by birth-place:—

Proportion per mille of total population.		
	Gain.	Loss.
Persons ...	63	82
Males ...	63	89
Females ...	61	77

BORN IN	PROPORTION PER MILLE OF RESIDENT POPULATION.								
	RURAL POPULATION.			URBAN POPULATION.			TOTAL POPULATION.		
	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.
The District ..	910	941	929	923	937	930	936	939	937
The Province ...	987	999	999	991	996	993	996	997	997
India ..	999	1,000	1,000	999	1,000	999	999	999	999
Asia ...	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000

The following remarks on the migration to and from Sháhpur are taken from the Census Report:—

"Sháhpur is not only a very sparsely populated district, but canal irrigation has been considerably extended of late years. Consequently Sháhpur takes population from the neighbouring districts of Gujranwála, Gujrát, and Jhang. But the disinclination of the trans-Salt Range people to cross the range, which has been already alluded to, is shown by the almost absolute absence of immigration from the tract in question except in the case of Jhelum, which is hardly an exception as both districts include at once cis-Salt Range country and a part of the range itself. The excess emigration into Jhelum and Pindi is of course accounted for by the abnormal demand for labour in these districts at the time of the Census; and the high percentage of males shows how largely temporary, in the case of the latter district at least, the emigration was. The emigration into Dera Ismail and Bannu is probably due to the semi-nomad population of the *thal* or sandy prairies of Sháhpur tending towards the valley of the Indus, as they gradually settle down and take to agricultural pursuits. The emigrants are probably largely graziers pasturing their herds in the Sháhpur plateaus."

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Increase and decrease of population.

The figures in the statement below show the population of the district as it stood at the three enumerations of 1855, 1868, and 1881 :—

	Census.	Persons	Males	Females	Density per square mile.
Actuals	1855	372,700	191,531	177,757	61
	1868	528,244	281,676	246,568	79
	1881	621,634	331,676	289,958	97
	1881 on 1855	149,934	140,145	112,201	125
Percentages	1881 on 1868	118.45	113.34	118.47	114

Unfortunately, the boundaries of the district have changed so much since the Census of 1855 that it is impossible to compare the published figures; and the only statistics available are those compiled

Year.	Persons	Males	Females
1841	421,5	221,7	199,8
1842	422,0	221,8	200,2
1843	423,4	222,0	201,4
1844	424,0	222,2	201,8
1845	425,4	222,4	203,0
1846	426,0	222,6	203,4
1847	427,4	222,8	204,6
1848	428,0	223,0	205,0
1849	429,4	223,2	206,2
1850	430,0	223,4	206,6
1851	431,4	223,6	207,8

at the Regular Settlement from the records of 1855 which give no details of sex. It will be seen that the annual increase of population per 10,000 since 1868 has been 97 for males, 113 for females, and 104 for persons, at which rate the male population would be doubled in 71.8 years, the female in 61.9 years, and the total population in 66.8 years.

Supposing the same rate of increase to hold good for the next ten years, the population for each year would be in hundreds as shown in the margin.

Nor is it improbable that the rate of increase will be sustained. The recent construction of the railway will almost certainly develop the district; while it is unlikely that the loss by emigration described at page 29 should continue at past rates. The increase in urban population since 1868 has been smaller than that in rural population, the numbers living in 1881 for every 100 living in 1868 being 107 for urban and 115 for total population. This is probably due to the fact that telegraphs and railways have largely diminished the importance of the smaller and more local towns at the expense of a few great centres of commerce. The populations of individual towns at the respective enumerations are shown under their several headings in Chapter VI. Within the district the increase of population since 1868 for the various *tahsils* is shown in the margin.

Tahsil.	Total Population.		Percentage of population of 1881 on that of 1868.
	1868	1881.	
Shikhar	103,507	122,633	118
Shikhar	125,402	131,615	105
Bhera	119,727	167,250	139
Total district*	3,68,794	4,21,504	114

* These figures do not agree exactly with the published figures of the Census Report of 1881 for the whole district. They are taken from the registers in the District Office, and are the best figures now available.

On this subject the Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his report on the District Census of 1881 :—

"Increase has taken place in all the *tahsils*, but has been greatest in Bhera, next greatest in Shāhpur, and least of all in Khushāb. This is just as might have been expected, the Bhera *tahsil* being the most prosperous in the district and the most favourably situated with regard to climate, rainfall and facility of cultivation. Khushāb is the least prosperous *tahsil*, and the one which has suffered the most in late years from drought, bad crops, and general distress, and from which there had been some little emigration. The increase has taken place in both sexes, but the number of males exceeds that of females by about 5 per cent. The rate of increase however has been slightly greater among females than males; and this is probably due rather to more correct enumeration in the present Census than to any real difference having taken place in the ratio between the two sexes, for the preponderance of males over females is undoubted, though, as will afterwards be seen, probably not arising from any great difference in the birth-rate. The rate of increase of the whole population since last Census seems quite as great as might have been anticipated even in a district eminently healthy, and peculiarly free from the fever epidemics which devastate other districts, and among a naturally sturdy and hardy people, marrying as soon as they can obtain wives, and without any care, or much necessity for care, for provision for their offspring.

"During the same period (1868 to 1881) cultivation has increased from 409,882 to 529,788 acres, or 29 per cent. and there are still 1,981,954 acres of cultivable but uncultivated land in the district. It is somewhat satisfactory that the district is one in which there was room for such an increase of population, and that the rate of increase has not outstripped the means of sustenance."

Table No. XI shows the total number of births and deaths registered in the district for the five years from 1877 to 1881,

	1880	1881.
Males	21	22
Females	18	20
Persons	39	41

and the births for 1880 and 1881, the only two years during which births have been recorded in rural districts. The distribution of the total deaths and of the deaths from fever for these five years over the twelve months of the year, is shown in Tables Nos. XIA and XIB. The annual birth rates per mille, calculated on the population of 1868, are shown in the margin.

The figures below show the annual death rates per mille since 1868, calculated on the population of that year:—

		1868	1869	1870	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	Average.
Males	...	19	21	30	27	34	27	24	25	24	23	31	31	33		27
Females	...	17	19	25	24	40	25	22	23	22	22	30	29	31	25	29
Persons	...	18	20	28	28	39	26	23	24	23	22	30	29	31	22	26

The registration is still imperfect, though it is yearly improving; but the figures always fall short of the facts, and the fluctuations probably correspond, allowing for a regular increase due to improved registration, fairly closely with the actual fluctuations in the births and deaths. The historical retrospect which forms the first part of Chapter III of the Census Report of 1881, and specially the annual chronicle from 1840 to 1881 which will be found at page 56 of that

Chapter III, A:

Statistical.

Increase and decrease of population.

Births and deaths.

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Age and sex.

report, throw some light on the fluctuations. Such further details as to birth and death rates in individual towns as are available, will be found in Table No. XLIV, and under the headings of the several towns in Chapter VI.

The figures for age, sex, and civil condition are given in great detail in Tables IV to VII of the Census Report of 1881, while the numbers of the sexes for each religion will be found in Table No. VII appended to the present work. The age statistics must be taken subject to limitations which will be found fully discussed in Chapter VII, of the Census Report. Their value rapidly diminishes as the numbers dealt with become smaller; and it is unnecessary here to give actual figures, or any statistics for *tahsils*. The following figures show the distribution by age of every 10,000 of the population according to the Census figures:—

	0-1	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-13	10-15	15-20
Persons ...	251	213	209	374	312	1,412	1,478	1,031	740
Males ...	256	204	202	323	313	1,378	1,491	1,079	720
Females ..	373	324	307	560	295	1,614	1,459	(2)	774

	20-25	25-30	30-35	35-40	40-45	45-50	50-55	55-60	over 60
Persons ...	749	718	612	417	273	315	225	124	222
Males ...	722	675	570	427	254	321	214	113	214
Females ..	707	743	620	457	284	304	44	143	712

Population.	Villages.	Towns.	Total.
All religions { 1885	5,212
1881 { 1885	5,310
Hindus .. 1881	5,272	5,163	6,278
Sikhs .. 1881	6,192	5,002	6,179
Muslimans .. 1881	6,641	...	6,541
Christians ... 1881	8,370	5,211	5,373

Year of life.	All religions.	Hindus	Muslimans
0-1	697	1,704	698
1-2	501	...	1,012
2-3	1,017	1,015	1,012
3-4	675
4-5	697

The number of males among every 10,000 of both sexes is shown in the margin.

The decrease at each successive enumeration is almost certainly due to greater accuracy of enumeration. In the Census of 1881, the number of females per 1,000 males in the earlier years of life was found to be as shown in the margin.

On the subject of the proportion of the sexes, the Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his report on the Census

of the district:—

Excess of males over females.

"The preponderance of males over females is less among Hindus than Muhammadans, and is greatest among the Sikhs (omitting the minutely small classes of Christians, Sarkagis, &c.); and this is due probably to a great many of the Sikhs enumerated on the night of Census not being permanent residents of the district, but travellers, traders, policemen, &c., passing through or temporarily living in the district, with wives and families elsewhere. The number of females approaches more nearly that of males in the Khusháb than in any other of the *tahsils*. This is a little remarkable, and probably arises from the fact that the people of Khusháb (including the *thal*, the inhabitants of which are camel-owners and carriers) are more migratory than those of the other *tahsils*, and that a great many persons (mostly males) who had left their homes from distress and gone in search

of labour, had not yet returned. It is also worthy of remark that both among Muhammadans and Hindūs the difference between males and females is less in towns than in villages. This is partly due to the fact that Hindūs, among whom the disparity is less, are more numerous in the towns; and it indicates also that women are more frequently married from villages into towns than from towns into villages. Among Sikhs, on the other hand, the disproportion is largest in towns; and this because the temporary residents just alluded to are found more often in towns than in villages.

"Considerable light is thrown by the age table on the ratio of males to females in the district. It is only at the age of above three that any disproportion is visible. From birth to three years of age, the numbers are almost equal: from two to three the number of female children is actually greater than that of males, but still nearly equal. From three to four and four to five, the difference is only 1.25 and 1.70 per cent. From five to twenty the difference is more marked. But these differences are probably more apparent than real, in consequence of the ages of female children not being very correctly stated, understated when about five or six years old, and overstated when reaching or after reaching the age of puberty. Something may also be due to greater mortality beginning to show itself in female children about these ages, in consequence of the less care taken of female than male children; but the consequences of neglect would naturally be more apparent in children of even tenderer years, and moreover the difference in proportion diminishes after the age of twenty. The figures denote a much greater death rate among women than men after the age of forty-five, as might indeed be expected from the harder and less careful lives led by women than by men. It has already been observed that the preponderance of males over females is less among Hindūs than Muhammadans. The inference from these details is that Hindū women are healthier, better nourished, and better cared for than Muhammadans, and this is in accordance with ordinary observation.

"The number of children under one year old, both Hindū and Muhammadan, being almost exactly equal, it would also seem to follow that the disproportion which afterwards takes place is due rather to greater mortality among females in later life than to any great difference in the birth-rate. I have taken the trouble to compare these figures with the latest and presumably the most trustworthy returns of births published by the Sanitary Commissioner. According to these, the percentage of births is fifty-two males to forty-eight females for the whole district. For towns where birth registration is better carried out, it is fifty-one males to forty-nine females. (For the 2nd quarter it is only 50.6 to 49.4). The present Census table is likely to be more correct than Police and Municipal returns, for it is hardly possible that mistakes in children's sex were committed at enumeration, and that boys were entered as girls to any considerable extent. It is easier for all the births not to be entered in the periodical birth returns, and the omissions probably occur chiefly in female births. There is therefore reason to believe that the number of female and male births in this district is very nearly even.

"The disparity arising in later years points only to the greater unhealthiness of the life, surroundings, and occupations of women than of men. It does not point to any studied bad treatment of female children. No doubt female children are little prized, and more neglected than male, but hardly more so than married women or female adults, who are very valuable; and there is nothing in the social condition or traditions of the people to cause them, by wilful neglect, to try to get rid of their female offspring. There is nothing in the bringing-up or settling of daughters rendering

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Excess of males over females.

Ratio of males to females at various ages.

Difference is less among Hindūs than Muhammadans at all ages.

Male and female birth-rate nearly equal.

Cause of excess of males in later life.

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Treatment of female children.

them more expensive, or troublesome to provide for than sons. Just the contrary is the case. The daughter is made to work as hard as the son, and is easily married, and her marriage costs nothing, while that of the son only is expensive. Her father spends nothing on her marriage except a little food. Her ornaments and even her clothes are provided by her husband and his family, at least such is the custom among all the agricultural and common classes of the district. Only among people of position is the marriage of a daughter attended with any considerable expense, and even then that of a son would involve a larger outlay. Hindûs perhaps, at least the better classes, spend a little more on their daughters' marriages and do not as a rule get rid of them on such easy and grovelling terms as Muhammadans, and yet the percentage of females is greater among them. The same state of things prevails, however, generally among Hindûs. It is to be remarked, however, that it is only by the very poor or the very disreputable of any class that a pecuniary consideration is ever taken for giving a daughter in marriage. But a sort of barter or exchange is very common, and the giving or promising of a girl is often used as the means of obtaining a wife for some male relation of the bride from some relation or connection of the bridegroom. The possession of a daughter is not only not a burden, but a use and convenience, and still female children are looked upon with disfavour and treated with neglect; probably a relic of the times not so very old when sons were valued for their fighting qualities."

Value of female children.

Civil condition.

The figures for civil condition are given in Table No. X, which shows the actual number of single, married, and widowed for each sex in each religion, and also the distribution by civil condition of the total number of each sex in each age-period. The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his Census report for the district:—

Polygamy.

"Where the number of males exceeds that of females, and women marry at a considerably younger age than men, the number of unmarried persons will be greater among males than females, and such it is shown by the present statistics. The percentage of single persons, male and female, to the whole male and female population, is about 58 and 41 respectively. The number of females with husbands alive is greater than that of married males (whose wives are alive), and the difference is about 45 per cent. on the total number of married males. But it is not to be inferred from this that polygamy is practised to this extent. The number of men with more wives than two is not shown. Of the number of men with more than one wife alive, there is no doubt it would be found that the majority have three wives. Both among Muhammadans and Hindûs polygamy is only indulged in by persons who can afford it, when the first marriage has not been productive of male children, or rather of no children at all; for if any children are born, the chances are in favour of some of them being males. Where no children have been born of the first or second marriage, a third and even a fourth wife is often taken. But even where no children have been born, the taking a second wife is by no means the rule. It depends on the man's means, and his ability to procure a wife, which is not always an easy matter.

Widows and Widowers.

"Probably the percentage of widows will be high in comparison with other districts. The re-marriage of widows is almost unknown in this district, even among the commonest classes. The custom of *chûdar andûzi* and *karewa* marriages does not exist. It is believed to be most prevalent in Hindû or Sikh districts and least so in the Muhammadan ones. At all events it finds little favour among the Muhammadans of this district.

Infant marriages

"Infant marriages are very few compared with adult ones. Of the total number of persons, and especially males, up to fifteen years of age, a very small percentage is married, most of whom no doubt are married about the

18th or 14th year ; and it would be found that infant marriages take place chiefly among the wealthier classes and those with pretensions to social superiority. Among the ordinary run of natives throughout the district, the general rule is betrothal during infancy, but not long before reaching the age of puberty, and marriage as soon as both parties have arrived at that age. Late marriage is frequently necessitated because one reaches the age before the other, or either has died before marriage and another marriage has to be arranged for. Very often both men and women, especially men, are long past the marriageable age without being either betrothed or married ; and women not unfrequently, from this cause and also when they are older than the youths to whom they are engaged, make a choice for themselves and marry without the consent of their relatives. This is at the bottom of half the suits, which are very numerous in this district, for recovery of wives, and prosecutions for enticing or taking away married women."

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.

Late marriages.

Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deaf-mutes

Infirmities.

Infirmity.	Males.	Females.
Insane	10	7
Blind	60	76
Deaf and dumb ...	20	13
Leprous	3	1

and lopers in the district in each religion. The proportions per 10,000 of either sex for each of these infirmities are shown in the margin. Tables XIV to XVII of the Census Report for 1881 give further details of the age and religion of the infirm.

The figures given below show the composition of the Christian population, and the respective numbers who returned their birth-place and their language as European. They are taken from Tables IIIA, IX and XI of the Census Report for 1881 :—

European and Eurasian population.

DETAILS.		Males.	Females.	Persons.
Races of Christian Population ... {	Europeans and Americans ...	19	6	25
	Eurasians ...	1	...	1
	Native Christians ...	3	1	3
	Total Christians...	23	7	29
Language ... {	English ...	21	6	27
	Other European Languages
	Total European Languages...	21	6	27
Birth-place ... {	British Isles ...	1	1	2
	Other European countries
	Total European countries ...	1	1	2

But the figures for the races of Christians, which are discussed in Part VII of Chapter IV of the Census Report, are very untrustworthy ; and it is certain that many who were really Eurasians returned themselves as Europeans. The figures for European birth-place are also incomplete, as many Europeans made entries, probably names of villages and the like, which, though they were almost certainly English, could not be identified, and were therefore classed as *doubtful and unspecified*.

Chapter III, B.

Social and
Religious Life.
Houses.

SECTION B.—SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS LIFE.

The dwellings of the common people throughout the district consists of one or more rooms called *kothis*, with a court-yard in front. This court-yard, named *whra*, is often common to several houses. The rooms are built ordinarily of clay, gradually piled up in successive layers and then plastered. The roofs are invariably flat, and are used as sleeping places during the hot weather. In the court-yard is generally seen a manger (*khurhi*), and a house in which the cattle are sheltered from the cold in the winter months, which structures (called *sath* in the *ladr*, where they are very capacious) consist generally of four walls covered with a thatch. The only exceptions to this general description, are the habitations of the people in the *thal* and in the hills. The former are often composed of nothing but wood and grass, and the latter are built entirely of boulders cemented together with clay; as, however, walls of this kind have little or no power of resisting rain, the roof is always supported on strong posts driven into the ground, the walls acting merely as a defence against the weather. As a rule the houses of the *sambuddhs* are built for them by the village carpenter (*tuckhán*) or potter (*kumhár*), who receive their food while the work is going on and a present of clothes or money when it is finished; payment for work at a fixed rate is only made by *Khatris* and other non-proprietors. The timber used for roofing is usually *kikar* or *ber* in the plains, and *kás* in the hills, the first two bring usually the produce of the *sambuddhs*' own fields; beams of *deodár* or *shishum* are only to be seen in the houses of the rich.

Furniture.

The requirements of a population low in the scale of civilization are few, and their furniture consists exclusively of necessities. First there are the receptacles for storing grain, of various sizes from the dimensions of a small room to those of a beer barrel; these are made by the women of the house, of fine clay mixed with chopped straw. The larger kind, called *sakár*, are square, and hold from forty to fifty maunds; the smaller description, *kalthoti*, are cylindrical in form, and hold but a few maunds. Next are to be seen some spinning wheels, as many as there are women; apparatus for churning milk; an instrument for cleaning cotton (*lulna*); a number of circular baskets with and without lids, made of reeds (*khávi*, *taung*, &c.) in which are kept articles of clothing and odds and ends; trays of reeds (*chháj*, *chhokor*), used in cleaning grain; a goat-skin water bag (*kuni*), used on journeys, or when employed in the fields at a distance from home; a set of wooden measures for grain (*tapá*, *paropi*, &c.); a leather bag (*khallur*) for carrying flour when away from home; a variety of cooking vessels, some of iron, and others of a composition resembling bell metal; a number of earthen pots and pans in which are stored grain, condiments and other articles of food; a coarse iron sieve (*parán*); a pestle and mortar (*dauri*) in which to pound spices and condiments. These, with a few stools (*pihru pihri*), and cots, complete the list of the fittings of a peasant's cottage. Everything is neatly arranged in order: space has to be economized, and things not in use are disposed on shelves resting upon pegs driven into the walls.

The food of the common people is very simple, consisting, in the hot weather, of cakes of wheaten flour moistened with butter-milk, for which butter, or *gur* (raw sugar) is sometimes substituted; and in the cold weather, of *bājra* with the same accompaniments. During the hot months the dough, after being kneaded, is taken to the village ovens, kept by a class called *machhis*, who live on the perquisites derived from baking food for the rest of the village community; but in the cold weather every family cooks for itself. The regular meals are taken twice a day, the first between 9 and 10 o'clock in the forenoon, and the other in the evening, as soon as it becomes dark, the time varying with the seasons from 6 to 8 P.M. In addition to these regular meals, in the hot weather the remains of the previous day's food, with a little butter-milk, is taken to the men working in the fields about an hour after sunrise, and parched grain is eaten in the afternoon: with the evening meal either vegetables or *dal* (lentils) is served according to the seasons. In the *thal* during the cold weather water-melons enter largely into the ordinary food of the inhabitants, and the seeds are commonly parched and eaten mixed with other grain.

The following estimate of the average annual consumption of food by the people was furnished by the district authorities for the Famine Report of 1879. It shows the number of *seers* annually consumed by a family consisting of five souls, and including two children and an old person :—

AGRICULTURISTS.				TOWNS-PEOPLE.			
Grain.		Seers.		Grains.		Seers.	
Wheat for 4 months	...	510		Wheat for 11 months	...	935	
Barley do. 2 do.	...	95		Bajra do. 1 do.	...	105	
Bajra do. 4 do.	...	510		Pulses do. 12 do.	...	112	
Makki do. 1 do.	...	128					
China do. 1 do.	...	128					
Total	...	1,871		Total	...	1,152	

The male portion of the agricultural population is more or less employed in some one or other of the operations of husbandry all the year round, and this is especially the case in the tracts where crops are artificially irrigated; but the men of the pastoral tribes lead a comparatively lazy life, the demands on their labour being limited to drawing water for the cattle and milking the cows. Women, on the other hand, are everywhere hard worked, the drudgery of their domestic occupations leaving them scarcely any leisure for rest or amusement. They must be up before it is light to churn the milk of the night before, and then sweep the house, throw away the rubbish, and make cakes of the cow-dung. Water has then to be fetched, an operation of great labour, involving, as it sometimes does, the carrying of two or three large jars several miles;* when this is over, it is time to commence cooking the morning meal, which when ready has to be taken to

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Food.

Consumption of food.

Daily life.

* In the Salt Range, and along its foot.

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Daily life.

the men working in the fields. If after this their services are not required to watch the crops and frighten away the birds, they are expected to spin cotton or wool, to be made into clothing for the family; indeed, the two occupations are often combined. Again early in the afternoon preparations have to be made for the evening meal, the vegetables or *dhāl* are placed on the fire, and a second trip made to the well or village tank for water. By the time they return it is time to knead the flour, make it into cakes, and cook it for their husbands, sons and brothers; for these lords of the creation will be wrath if everything is not ready for their reception on their return from work; they will however unbend so far as to assist in tying up and milking the cows. This done, the milk is put over a slow fire to warm, and the family sits down to dinner; and so the days pass with little variation from year to year, bringing no rest for the household drudge, till her girls are old enough to take her place, or age unfits her for further labour.

Moles of reckoning
time

Closely connected with this subject is the mode of reckoning time in vogue among the people. They divide the day into twelve parts: some of the divisions vary with the seasons, while others are fixed and constant; but as nearly all have reference to some one or more of their habitual employments, it necessarily follows that the divisions of the day are more minute than those of the night. The following table gives the nomenclature adopted respectively by Muhammadans and Hindús, and opposite each recognized division of time will be found the corresponding period, according to our method of computing time:—

DIVISIONS OF TIME AS RECOGNIZED.		Corresponding English time.
Among Muhammadans.	Among Hindús.	
Dhammi wela ...	Parbhat ...	The time when the day is about to break, before objects can be clearly distinguished.
Namáz wela ...	Nono ...	About half an hour before sunrise.
Wadda wela ...	Nono ...	Sunrise—a little before or a little after.
Hoti wela ...	Roti wela ...	Varies with the season from 8 A.M. to between 10 and 11 A.M.
Dopahar ...	Dopahar ...	Noon.
Peshin wela ...	Pichhalapahar ...	3 P.M.
Naddai Peshin ...	Nono ...	"Little Peshin," half way between "Peshin" and "Digar."
Digar wela ...	Nono ...	About an hour before sunset.
Nimshán wela ...	Tirkáán wela ...	The "Nimshán" of the Persian—a little after sunset.
Khushan wela ...	Pota wela ...	Sleeping time, varying with the season from 8 to 10 P.M.
Adhi-rat ...	Adi-rat ...	Midnight.
Ashar ...	Nono ...	Corruption of "Ashar" 3 A.M.

Dress.

The every-day dress of the male portion of the Muhammadan population living north of the Jhelum river consists of four garments—a *majla*, a *kurtá*, a *chaddar*, and a *turban* or *pay* as it is here called. The first is a piece of cloth about three yards long, and a yard and a half wide, which is tied tightly round the waist, and allowed to hang in loose folds over the lower part of the body. The *kurtá* is a full cut tunic, with large open sleeves reaching a

little below the waist. The *chádár* is made of three breadths of cloth, in length about as many yards, and is worn something in the manner of a plaid. Of the turban nothing further need be said, than that its size depends much on the social position of the wearer, and increases with his importance. South of the Jhelum, the *kurta* is discarded, in the *bár* it is never seen; indeed the man who would wear such a garment there must be possessed of more than ordinary moral courage to endure the jokes that would certainly be made at his expense. The material of which this simple clothing is made is the ordinary coarse country cloth, except that along the rivers, especially the Chenáb, coloured *lungis* are often used as *majlas*. The Kaliárs, the chief camel-owners of the Sháhpur *tahsil*, are also much given to wearing *lungis*. The Hindús to a great extent follow the fashions of the Muhammadans among whom they live in regard to the use of the *kurta*, but their mode of tying the turban is somewhat different, and the *dhóti* replaces the *majla*, the difference between these garments being in the manner of putting them on. The Muhammadan women also wear the *majla* (tying it somewhat differently to the men) and this is usually a coloured *lungi*. Their other garments are two, the *choli* and the *chádár*. The former has short sleeves, and fits closely round the breasts, leaving the remainder of the body bare, except where a small lappet hangs down and hides the stomach. The *chádár* is a piece of cloth about three yards long and one and a half wide, worn as a veil over the head and upper part of the body, from which it falls in graceful folds nearly to the feet behind. The *choli* is generally made of strips of many coloured silk, the *chádár* of a coarse but thin description of country cloth called *dhotar*, sometimes dyed but more often plain. To this the *thal* is an exception, where veils of many colours, the patterns formed by spots disposed in a variety of ways on a dark ground are the rule. In the hills, coloured garments are scarcely ever seen. The Hindú women of the Khatri class wear full trousers called *suthan* made of a striped material called *susi*, the ground of which is usually blue. Over the head is thrown a *chádár* of coarse cloth, prettily embroidered in many coloured silks called *phulkári*, and round the upper part of the body is worn a loose *kurta* of silk or muslin. The women of the Arora class are clothed like the Khatriánis, except that, in place of the trousers, they wear a skirt called a *ghaggra*, and sometimes the *majla*. It may be added that it is the invariable rule, even among Muhammadans, that a girl shall wear a *kurta* and plait the two front tresses of her hair until she is married.

The ornaments worn by the people are chiefly of silver, and are of so many shapes and sizes that no mere description would serve to convey even an approach to a correct idea of them. A sheet containing drawings of all the ornaments in general use, with a brief note under each, giving the name by which it is known, and other particulars regarding it, is attached to Colonel Davies' Settlement Report. The workmanship of all is most rough, but the designs of some are not inelegant. It may be mentioned here that

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Ornaments.

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Social and Religious Life.

Rules regulating devolution of property.

the large silver ornament worn on the head, somewhat resembling in size and shape a shield, and called a *choti phél*, is worn only by women of the Arora class, and is nowhere to be seen east of Shahpur.

The rules under these two headings can best be given together. The general rule, in regard to inheritance, is that known as *pargand*, where all the sons of one father inherit alike. The contrary custom of *chundvand*, or equal division between the issue of each wife, is the exception, and is chiefly found in villages held by Syads, Kureshis and Pathans, tribes in which polygamy is more commonly practised. Another generally recognised rule is, that female children shall only obtain a share in the inheritance when the father by the execution of a formal deed during his life-time has transferred to them a specific portion. Illegitimate children, and the issue of former husbands (*quichhlay*), are altogether excluded. In default of male issue, widows may inherit on a life-tenure only, but they have no power to alienate any portion of the property by sale, gift, or mortgage, unless with the concurrence of the next-of-kin. In some few villages, provision has been made for the case when the next heirs refuse to contribute towards such necessary expenses as the marriage of the deceased shareholder's daughter; in such cases the widow is allowed to raise money by selling or mortgaging the whole, or any portion, of the estate. During their life-time proprietors can, of course, subject to the exercise of the right of pre-emption on the part of the remainder of the coparcenary, dispose of their land as they will. The only exceptions to the above rules as they affect widows are in estates owned by Syads, Kureshis, Hindús, and in some parts, Khokhars, where, owing to widows not being allowed to remarry, all restrictions on their power to dispose of the property of their deceased husband have been removed.

General statistics and distribution of religions.

Table No. VII shows the numbers in each *tahsil* and in the whole district who follow each religion, as ascertained in the Census of 1881, and Table No. XI.III gives similar figures for towns. Tables Nos. III, IIIA, IIIB of the Report of that Census give

Religion.	Rural population.	Urban population.	Total population.
Hindú ..	1,615	2,815	4,430
Sikh ..	112	140	252
Jain
Musalman ..	2,822	2,670	5,492
Christian

further details in the subject. The distribution of every 10,000 of the population by religions is shown in the margin. The limitations subject to which these figures must be taken, and especially the rule fol-

Sect.	Rural population.	Total population.
Sunnis
Shi'as
Wahabis
Others and unspecified

lowed in the classification of Hindús, are fully discussed in Part I Chapter IV of the Census Report. The distribution of every 1,000 of the Musalman population by sect is shown in the margin. The sects of the Christian population are given in Table No. IIIA of the Census Report; but the figures are, for reasons

explained in Part VII, Chapter IV of the Report, so very imperfect that it is not worth while to reproduce them here. Table No. IX shows the religion of the major castes and tribes of the district, and therefore the distribution by caste of the great majority of the followers of each religion. A brief description of the great religions of the Punjab and of their principal sects will be found in Chapter IV of the Census Report. The religious practice and belief of the district present no special peculiarities; and it would be out of place to enter here into any discussion on the general question. The general distribution of religions by *tahsils* can be gathered from the figures of Table No. VII; and regarding the population as a whole, no more detailed information as to locality is available. But the land-owning classes and the great mass of the village menials are wholly Musalmán, the Hindús and Sikhs being almost confined to the mercantile and official classes and their priests. The proportion of Hindús is much greater in towns than in villages. The seven towns of the district include nearly one-third of the whole Hindú population, and the remainder are absorbed by the largest villages, since in the smaller ones not a single Hindu is met with except here and there a petty shop-keeper.

The figures for religion lead to another subject, not altogether devoid of interest, both in a statistical point of view, and from the light it throws on the character and habits of feeling of the population. It is the subject of their superstitious reverence for the holy dead, their periodical pilgrimages to the tombs of saintly characters, and their belief in the efficacy of prayers offered up and vows registered on these occasions. The table at the top of next page gives a list of the principal shrines, the dates on which large gatherings, or *melas* as they are called, take place, and an approximate estimate of the numbers present at each of these half-religious, half-festive, meetings.

No special arrangements are made for feeding and lodging at these assemblies. Those who attend them are for the most part inhabitants of the district, and have friends or relations in the neighbourhood. Such as have neither sleep in the open air or at the village hospices (*dáras*).

Table No. VIII shows the numbers who speak each of the principal languages current in the district separately for each *tahsil* and for the whole district. More detailed information will be found in Table No. IX of the Census Report for 1881, while in Chapter V of the same report the several languages are briefly discussed. The figures in the margin give the distribution of every 10,000

Language.	Proportion per 10,000 of population
Hindustani ...	17
Panjábi ...	9,970
Pashtu ...	12
All Indian languages ...	9,989
Non-Indian languages ...	1

of the population by language, omitting small figures.

Table No. XIII gives statistics of education as ascertained at the Census of 1881 for each religion and for the total population

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General statistics
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religions.

Shrines and fairs.

Language.

Education.

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Social and
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Shrines and fairs.

Locality where shrine is situated or fair held.	Name of shrine	Date and duration of Fair or gathering.	APPROXIMATE ATTENDANCE		REMARKS.
			Pilgrims.	Idle Spectators.	
Turtipur (8 miles south-west of Bhera)	Pir Adam Sakin.	13th, 14th and 15th of Sawan	1,000	2,000	By far the most largely attended of these, it will be seen, are the fair of Pith Chetas (the meeting of the Bhaids of Shikhar and of Bal Shikhar at Ghorat). The meeting at the shrine of Pith Chetas of Shikhar is so far superior that the individuals comprising it nearly all undertake travelling at the expense of the State of Bhera, who possess the privilege of offering on the occasion the rich and well-to-do all parts of the Punjab attend the shrine at the appointed time, fully convinced that the operation of their lotting will, through the blessing of the shrine, be a great gain, and that of every year.
Nalbi Bhai (close to the above)	Shah Shah.	From 12th to 23rd Ashadh	2,000	1,000	
Shikhar (adjacent Bhera.)	Pith Chetas.	Two last Fardays of Chet and two first Sundays in Bahakh.	2,500	500	
Hazira (on the banks of the Chenab), Bhera, Shikhar.	Shah Shah.	12th Bahakh	4,000	1,000	
	Pir Karamat Pith Chetas.	15th Pith Chet, 22nd, 23rd & 24th of Chet.	1,500	200	
Bhera (10 miles south-east of Civil Station)	Fallan Hail.	From 25th to end of Ramzan.	6,000	10,000	
Nibang (10 miles south of Sahiwal)	Fair Pith.	1st Bahakh	1,000	4,000	
Pir Baba, 16 miles north of Sahiwal.	Pir Baba.	15th Chet.	500	2,500	
Jahania Bhai, (close to Nibang) Ghorat.	Jahania Bhai.	6th and 7th Ashadh.	500	2,500	
Khushab.	Dial Bhaia.	20th Chet and 1st Bahakh.	4,000	8,000	
	HABA Diwan	27th Chet.	2,500	6,000	

Education.

	Education.	Rural population	Total population
Males.	Under instruction ...	113	160
	Can read and write ...	351	477
Females.	Under instruction ...	48	49
	Can read and write ...	44	64

of each *tahsil*. The figures for female education are probably very imperfect indeed. The figures in the margin show the number educated among every 10,000 of each sex according to the Census returns. Statistics

regarding the attendance at Government and aided schools will be found in Table No. XXXVII.

There are altogether 34 Government schools in this district

Details.	Boys.	Girls.
Europeans and Eurasians
Native Christians ...	1,313	69
Hindus ...	763	35
Muslims ...	135	...
Sikhs
Others
Children of agriculturists ...	400	...
" of non-agriculturists ...	1,723	...

including the two branch schools at Bhera. There are also two girls' schools at Shikhar, that is a Gurukul school for Hindus, and for Muhammadan girls a school for teaching Arabic and Urdu. The distribution of the scholars at these schools by religion and the occupations of their fathers, as it stood in 1881-82, is shown in the margin. Colonel Davies thus described the state of education in the district in 1865:—

"It may be remarked that, excepting the large towns of Bhera, Mian, Khushab and Sahiwal, and the Salt Range generally, there is little love of learning or appreciation of its benefits in any part of the district; in the *bar* the feeling in this respect is little short of aversion, and all attempts to overcome it have hitherto failed: the lawless habits of the population

of this part, are doubtless sufficient of themselves to explain this, as, in the Salt Range, owing to the almost absolute freedom from crime of the people and their strong religious instincts, the opposite effect is seen. The character of indigenous education in the district is almost entirely religious; wherever there is a *masjid* or *dharmshala*, there is to be found a school for teaching; in the former the *Korán* and other works relating to religion, and in the latter *Japji*, a portion of the *Granth*, and certain works on science and morals. The *mulla* attached to the *masjid*, and the *bhai* of the *dharmshala* are paid chiefly in presents and fees; for instance, when a boy or girl has finished the reading of the *Korán* the father gives the teacher a present, varying from five to thirty rupees, and a smaller sum on the completion of other less important works. In addition to these precarious offerings, the *mullas* receive their *wazifa* or daily bread, from all who can afford it, in the shape of small thick cakes, called *gogi*. These men also officiate at births, marriages, and deaths, taking their fees according to the custom of the place. The same system, *mutatis mutandis*, is followed in the remuneration of the *dharmshaliás*. In none of these indigenous schools does the teacher receive a fixed salary, or regular fees from the parents of the pupils. Land is set apart as endowments for the support of the *masjids*, and the proceeds are appropriated by the *imám*, as the resident *mulla* is called."

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Social and Religious Life.

Education.

Tables Nos. XL, XLI, and XLII, give statistics of crime; while Table No. XXXV shows the consumption of liquors and narcotic stimulants. The character and disposition of each tribe will be found described in the following section under the tribal headings.

Character of the people.

It is impossible to form any satisfactory estimate of the wealth of

Poverty or wealth of the people.

Assessment.		1869-70.	1870-71	1871-72
Class I.	Number taxed ...	235	670	160
	Amount of tax ...	3,741	11,118	1,393
Class II.	Number taxed ...	67	181	65
	Amount of tax ...	1,417	4,077	1,495
Class III.	Number taxed ...	21	70	37
	Amount of tax ...	1,146	2,730	1,303
Class IV.	Number taxed ...	3	30	1
	Amount of tax ...	677	1,620	115
Class V.	Number taxed	45	...
	Amount of tax	5,361	...
Total ...	Number taxed ...	441	667	293
	Amount of tax ...	8,223	21,903	4,297

its imposition. The distribution of licenses granted and fees collected in 1880-81 and 1881-82 between towns

	1880-81.		1881-82.	
	Towns.	Villages.	Towns.	Villages.
Number of licenses	100	338	100	225
Amount of fees ...	2,615	4,615	2,575	4,410

while their fellows in the villages are scarcely less dependent upon the nature of the harvest than are the agriculturists themselves, their fees often taking the form of a fixed share of the produce; while even where this is not the case the demand for their products necessarily

of the commercial and industrial classes. The figures in the margin show the working of the income tax for the only three years for which details are available; and Table No. XXXIV gives statistics for the license tax for each year since of over and villages of under 5,000 souls, is shown in the margin. But the numbers affected by these taxes are small. It may be said generally that a very large proportion of the artisans in the towns are extremely poor,

* This includes Government servants.

Chapter III, C. varies with the prosperity of their customers. Perhaps the leather-workers should be excepted, as they derive considerable gains from the hides of the cattle which die in a year of drought. The circumstances of the agricultural classes are discussed below in Section.

SECTION C.—TRIBES AND CASTES.

Statistics and local distribution of tribes and castes.

Table No. IX gives the figures for the principal castes and tribes of the district, with details of sex and religion, while Table No. IXA shows the number of the less important castes. It would be out of place to attempt a description of each. Many of them are found all over the Panjāb, and most of them in many other districts, and their representatives in Shahpur are distinguished by no local peculiarities. Some of the leading tribes, and especially those who are important as landowners or by position and influence, are briefly noticed in the following sections: and each caste will be found described in Chapter VI of the Census Report for 1881. The Census statistics of caste were not compiled for *tahsils*, at least in their final form. It was found that an enormous number of mere clans or sub-divisions had been returned as castes in the schedules, and the classification of these figures under the main heads shown in the caste tables was made for districts only. Thus no statistics showing the local distribution of the tribes and castes are available. But the general distribution of the more important landowning tribes may be broadly described as follows:—The Shāhpur Salt Range is entirely held by Awāns, with the exception of a colony of Janjāns in its eastern portion. The *thal* is almost wholly in the hands of the Tiwānas. The valley of the Jhelum is occupied by Jhammatas, Mekans, Biloches and Khokhars, and that of the Chenāb by Rājhas and Khokhars. The western *bār* is held by Jhammatas and Mekans, the north-eastern by Gondals, and the south-eastern by Rājhas.

Area owned by each tribe.

The following table shows the area owned and revenue paid by each tribe as ascertained at the Settlement of 1865. No later statistics will be available till next Settlement.

Religion.	Tribe.	No. of villages	Area in acres.	Taxes, including Tithi.	REMARKS.
Muslimān.	Gondal ...	03	267,220	23,817	Converted Hindus.
	Rājha ...	04	116,050	33,120	
	Jhammat ...	16	28,181	15,070	
	Mekan ...	27	64,342	8,000	
	Tiwāna ...	13	107,014	11,402	
	Janjān ...	6	60,441	9,100	Mahomedan immigrants from the west.
	Khokhar ...	73	208,375	25,761	
	Awān ...	05	401,205	82,183	
	Biloch ...	41	161,641	16,760	
	Miscellaneous ...	200	1,357,626	212,640	
	Total ...	634	2,935,184	367,010	
Hindu.	Brahmins, Khatri, and Aroras, }	13	61,020	8,079	
	Grand Total ...	647	3,000,700	376,612	

Here, as in other districts of the western plains, the tribe and not the caste is the social unit, and while Rajpút means little more than a tradition of origin, Jat is commonly applied to all Muhammadan agriculturists who cannot claim higher descent. The following figures show the principal sub-divisions of Jats and Rajpúts returned at the Census of 1881. Of the Gondals no fewer than 6,674 returned themselves as Chauháns also, and are included in both figures; and the same thing has occurred with smaller numbers of many other tribes, while many tribes are returned partly as Jats and partly as Rajpúts :—

JATS.		RAJPÚTS.	
Class	Number.	Class.	Number.
Bhatta ...	2,670	Bhatti ...	13,470
Sipra ...	1,794	Panwár ...	1,608
Gondal ...	305	Gondal ...	19,373
Khokhar ...	1,800	Khokhar ...	4,624
Hinjra ...	820	Tárar ...	1,173
Chadhar ...	1,670	Tiwána ...	8,202
Paghar ...	1,164	Chadhar ...	1,877
Harral ...	1,196	Janjúa ...	8,727
Dhádhi ...	426	Joya ...	2,195
		Chauhán ...	80,242
		Ránjha ...	8,789
		Sáíl ...	2,403
		Mekan ...	6,181
		Jhammat ...	1,862
		Kalas ...	1,902

The Gondals, Jhammats, Mekans, and Tiwánas, all claim to be descended from a branch of the Surajbansi Rajpúts, and their traditions describe how they were all converted to Muhammadanism by the famous Bába Farid, of Pák Pattan. It is not improbable, therefore, that they may be all descended from the same stock, though, owing to the lapse of time and the absence of anything in the shape of family records, all attempts to clear up this point have failed. This much may perhaps be inferred from coincidences in their traditions, that this large section of the existing population of the district migrated to its present abode within the last six hundred years.*

The Gondals occupy the central portion of the Bhern *tahsil*, and are a pastoral people, subsisting almost entirely on the produce of their flocks and herds. Physically they are a fine race, owing doubtless to the free and active life they lead, and the quantities of animal food they consume, and if we except their inordinate passion for appropriating the cattle of their neighbours, which in their estimation carries with it no moral taint, they must be pronounced free from vice. The tribe is sub-divided into the Bhulluwáns and Deowánas, and from the latter proceed the Budhakas, Mamnánas, and other less important off-shoots.

* Sheikh Farid-ud-din better known as Bába Farid, is stated in the *Ain-ul-Bari* to have died at Pák Pattan in A. H. 668, which corresponds with the year 1269 of our era.

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Tribes and Castes.
Jats and Rajpúts.

Rajpút Tribes.

Gondals.

Chapter III, C.
Tribes and Castes.
Jhammats and
Mekans.

The Jhammats and Mekans are found in great numbers throughout the Sháhpur *tahsil*. The former are a quiet industrious race devoted chiefly to agriculture, the latter are a more turbulent people, certain members of the tribe having always taken a prominent part in the troubles that agitated the district prior to the advent of settled Government. Both these tribes are descended from the same ancestor, from whom come also the Chachars, Dhúdhis and Hargans : these last, as being numerically few and holding comparatively little land, have been ranged in the statement on page 44 under the head "miscellaneous."

The Tiwáns.

The Tiwáns are a half-pastoral, half-agricultural tribe, occupying the tract intermediate between the *thal* and *mohar* of the Khusháb *tahsil*. They are a fine hardy race of men, and make good soldiers, but their good qualities are sadly marred by a remarkably quarrelsome disposition, which is a source of never ending trouble to themselves, and to all with whom they are brought in contact. The Chiefs of this tribe have always held a commanding position in this part of the country.

The early history of the tribe is thus told in Griffin's *Punjab Chiefs*, pp. 519—521:—

"From a common ancestor have descended three remarkable tribes, the Siáls of Jhang, the Ghebas of Pindi Gheb, and the Tiwáns of Mitha Tiwána in Sháhpur. The Ghebas know but little of their past history, but they are claimed as kin by both Siáls and Tiwáns, who till lately were agreed as to their respective descent from Gheo, Tenu or Teo and Seo, the three sons of Rai Shankar, a Rajpút of Dháranagar, the ancestor of the Ghebas being Gheo, of the Tiwáns Teo, and of the Siáls Seo. The lords of the Tiwána tribe have lately been making further enquiries, and have now a different story; but whether the amended genealogy is more truthful than before, it is impossible to say. It makes Kámadia father of (1) Rai Shankar the Siál ancestor, (2) Tiwána, who had three descendants, Wattu the ancestor of the Patálpotras, Lakhu the ancestor of the Patála Tiwáns, and Titu, father of Mal ancestor of the Sháhpur Tiwáns and of Marúkh ancestor of the Ghebas. It certainly seems more probable than the regular descent from the three sons of Rai Shankar. If the Tiwáns did not come to the Panjáb with the Siáls, their emigration was no long time after, and must have been before the close of the fifteenth century. They soon embraced Muhammadanism and settled at Jaháugir on the Indus, where they remained till the time of Mir Ali Khán, who by the advice of his spiritual guide, Fakír Sultan Háji, moved eastward with his tribe and many of the Shaikhs, Shahlolis, Mundáls and others. He arrived at the country then called Dauda, and founded the village of Ukhli Mohla in the Sháhpur district. His son Mir Ahmad Khán, about the year 1680, built Mitha Tiwána, seven miles east of Ukhli Mohla, where he had found sweet water, from which the town was named (*mitha*, sweet). This Chief was engaged in constant hostilities with the Awáns, his neighbours to the north, and at Hadali, five miles from Mitha Tiwána, defeated them with great slaughter. Dádu Khán and Sher Khán, the third and fourth Maliks, improved and enlarged Mitha Tiwána, which soon became a flourishing town, and many settlers from other parts of the country took up their residence in it."

Ránjhas.

The latter history of the tribe has been already given. The Ránjhas, together with several other less important offshoots, constitute a branch of the great Bhatti tribe, Rajpúts of the

Chandrabansi race. They occupy the greater part of the Mithi and Mûsa Chûha talûkas, and are on the whole a peaceable and well disposed section of the population, subsisting chiefly by agriculture. In physique they resemble their neighbours; the Gondals, with whom they intermarry freely.

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The Janjûahs are descendants of Rajpût immigrants from Chagtargarh. They trace their descent from the Râja Mal who is said to have built the fort of Malot in the Jhelum district, and state that the members of the tribe found in this district are the progeny of his great grandson Sunpâl. At one time masters of nearly the whole of the Salt Range, this tribe has now been reduced by the aggressions of the Awâns to the occupancy of a few villages, mostly situated at the foot of those hills. In this district the only remnants of their former extensive possessions are five estates in the eastern corner of the Khushûb talûk. Their spirit appears to have been crushed by continued misfortune, and they are now a listless apathetic people. At the same time they pride themselves on the purity of their blood, and will not allow their daughters to marry out of their own tribe. The Chief, or Râja as he is styled, of this tribe, is Sultân Sharaf of Katha. (For a further account, see Jhelum Gazetteer.)

Janjûahs.

The Awâns and Khokhars both claim to be descended from Kutb Shâh, who is himself said to have been a descendant of Ali, the son-in-law of Muhammad. The date of immigration of the former tribe is not known, but was probably quite recent, as when the Emperor Bâbar passed through the Salt Range, the Janjûahs occupied it almost exclusively, and he makes no mention of any such tribe as the Awâns, who are now in possession of nearly the whole of that portion which lies in this district, as well as the greater part of the plains at its base. The Awâns are a brave, high spirited race, but withal exceedingly indolent. In point of character there is a little in them to admire; headstrong and irascible to an unusual degree, and prone to keeping alive old feuds, they are constantly in hot water, their quarrels leading to affrays not unfrequently ending in bloodshed. As a set-off against this, it must be allowed that their manners are frank and engaging, and although they cannot boast of the truthfulness of other hill tribes, they are remarkably free from crime. The Khokhars, judging from their peculiar social customs, are of Hindu origin; they are found scattered all over the Panjâb and hold land in every part of this district. The tribe has become split up into innumerable sections, among which the Nizawâns of the Kulowâl talûka, notorious for their thieving propensities and generally lawless character, are the only powerful branch. (For a further account of the Khokhars and Awâns, see Jhelum Gazetteer.)

Awâns and Khokhars.

The Biloches are the last of the tribes that require special notice. These are the descendants of immigrants from Kech Mekran on the shores of the Persian Gulf, where the tribe appears to have been settled previous to the Muhammadan invasion of Persia. The families found in this district are probably descended from the founders of the three Deras, Mallik Sohrab, and his

The Biloches.

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Village Commu-
nities and Tenures.
The Biloches.

three sons Ismail, Gházi, and Fateh Khán, who migrating from their native country in A. D. 1469, took service under Sultán Husen, Governor of Multán, and obtained from him the charge of the country along our present Frontier. The possessions of the tribe are situated in a circle round Sāhiwāl, which was founded by one of its Chiefs. Another branch has its head-quarters at Khushāb.

Of the Shāhpur Biloches, 2,229 returned their tribe as Jatoli, 1,350 as Rind, 1,053 as Lashari, and 402 as Korai in the Census of 1881.

Khatri and
Aroras.

The mercantile castes do not call for separate notice, as they differ in no respect from their fellow caste men in other parts of the provinces. In the Census of 1881 the chief tribes returned were as follows:—

Khatri.

Bunjāhi 6,009; Khokhrān 2,810; Marhotra 1,726; Chārzāti 1,268; Kapūr 903; Jhāghar 506; Khaana 458; Bahri 444.

Aroras.

Uttarādhi 20,193; Dahn 9,482; Dakhana 5,348.

SECTION D.—VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND TENURES.

Village tenures.

Table No. XV shows the number of villages held in the various forms of tenure, as returned in quinquennial Table No. XXXIII, of the Administration Report for 1876-79. But the accuracy of the figures is more than doubtful. It is in many cases simply impossible to class a village satisfactorily under any one of the ordinarily recognised tenures; the primary division of rights between the main sub-divisions of the village following one form, while the interior distribution among the several proprietors of each of these sub-divisions follow another form which itself often varies from one sub-division to another. The prevailing tenure is what is commonly known as *hukajachdā* where the extent of possession is the measure of each man's rights; and if reference be had to the past history of the country, and the system of revenue management under the Sikhs, to say nothing of the vicissitudes to which societies and families are subject, even under the best ordered Government, it will not be a subject for surprise that such should have been the result.

Causes that led to
this state of pro-
perty.

Colonel Davies thus describes the causes which led to this state of affairs:—

“On the dissolution of the Mughal empire, anarchy for a long time prevailed, during which the country became the theatre of incessant fighting of tribe with tribe, varied by the incursions of the Afghans. To this succeeded the grinding rule of the Sikhs, when, as has been very truly remarked, ‘the tendency was rather to abandon rights, symbols more of misery than of benefit, than to contend for their exact definition and enjoyment,’ and if these causes of themselves were insufficient to weaken the strong ties that bind the peasant to the soil of his fathers, the occurrences at times of famines and other calamities would concur in bringing about this result. Nor are these the only causes that would tend to disturb the original equilibrium, even where this had ever existed. Our every-day experience tells us that the several members of a family are not equally gifted. One is provident, another reckless; one is pushing and active, while another is altogether wanting in energy. It is needless to say, that while the former passes unscathed

through ordeals such as have been described above, the latter is forced to succumb to them. Again under such a rule as the Sikhs, the former would probably succeed in making a friend of the ruler for the time being, and with his assistance would extend his possessions at the expense of his weaker brethren ; and be it remembered *there was ordinarily no redress* should he presume on his influence to do this.

"Among all the villages of the district, 66 only retain the communal form of tenure, all the others having lost, or retained only in the shape of vague forms, even the relation that exists in *patidári* villages between ancestral right and the possession of land. In some few villages the relative rights of the members of the community according to the family genealogy are well known and could be accurately stated, but were found at the time of Settlement not to have been acted upon for years, even for generations, and could not therefore be restored, the existing status being taken as the basis of operations. The distribution of the revenue among the members of a village, accordingly, is regulated solely by possession, each man paying upon the land held by him at rates varying according to the nature of the soil. In the *thal* and *bár* tracts, a portion of the revenue was thrown upon the cattle of the village, but this forms the only exception common to all the district, to the rule as above stated. In the *Bhara tahsil* during the Sikh rule, a house tax, called *búhá*, of Rs. 2 used to be collected from all the residents in the village ; and this custom is still retained, a portion of the revenue being thrown by the people upon the houses and raised by a house rate, thus reducing the sum to be levied by grazing and soil rates."

Table No. XV shows the number of proprietors or shareholders and the gross area held in property under each of the main forms of tenure, and also gives details for large estates and for Government grants and similar tenures. The figures are taken from the quinquennial table prepared for the Administration Report of 1878-79. The accuracy of the figures is, however, exceedingly doubtful ; indeed land tenures assume so many and such complex forms in the Panjab, that it is impossible to classify them successfully under a few general headings. From the remarks just quoted, it will be readily conceived that proprietary rights were somewhat ill-defined at the Regular Settlement ; and that innumerable claims were set up, based upon the tradition of ancestral rights, but unsupported by recent possession. The manner in which these were dealt with is thus described by Colonel Davies :—

"The causes already described had combined to produce the state of things described, and the status, *as found to have existed for a long period*, was accepted as the basis of our future operations, both in our judicial decisions, and in the preparation of the record of rights and liabilities. Pedigree tables had been drawn out in the first instance ; but it was found that although the genealogies of the village communities were well known, and there were often *tarafs* and *pattis*, or as they are called *varhis*, yet these had not been acted on for several generations. Possession in no way corresponded with shares, and the land of proprietors of one nominal division were often found mixed up with those of another. The State dues during the Sikh times were, as before explained, taken in kind by *kankút* or *batái* ; while items of common income, such as *dharat*, *kamiána*, and in the *thal*, *pivi*, were appropriated by the headmen on the pretence of defraying village expenses. Since annexation the revenue has for the most part been paid on holdings by a *bighá* rate, or by a distribution on ploughs, &c."

The table on the next page gives the details of proprietary and tenancy holdings as they stood at the Regular Settlement,

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Village Communities and Tenures.

Existing state of tenures.

Proprietary tenures.

Statistics of proprietary and tenancy holdings.

Table No. XVI shows the number of tenancy holdings and the gross area held under each of the main forms of tenancy as they stood in 1878-79, while Table No. XXI gives the current rent-rates of various kinds of land as returned in 1881-82. But the accuracy of both sets of figures is probably doubtful; indeed it is impossible to state general rent-rates which shall even approximately represent the letting value of land throughout a whole district. The subjoined table gives particulars as to the number and status of tenants, and the size of the holdings of each class as ascertained at the Settlement of 1865:—

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ties and Tenures.
Tenants and rent.

	No. of holdings.	Average area of holdings.
<i>Tenants having right of occupancy.</i>		Acres.
1. Paying at revenue rate only ...	4	3
2. Do. do but something in excess as rent in cash ...	2,065	6
3. Do. at grain rates ...	681	49
Total Tenants with rights of occupancy.	2,730	
Cultivating tenants with no permanent right. (i.e., tenants holding at will) ...	12,200	177

The term "hereditary cultivators" was not understood in the district of Sháhpur for several years after the annexation of the Punjab; but enquiries showed that there were, in the river valleys at any rate, persons who, though they had no claim to proprietary title, asserted a claim to cultivate the land in their possession, subject to the payment of a rent more favourable than was demanded from the mere tenant-at-will. These men had acquired their rights by one of two ways. They had either broken up the waste land, (generally land on the banks of the river) and were called *Abádkárán* or *Banjārshigáfán*, or they had sunk a well on the land which they cultivated, or had cleared out and put into working order an old well, situated in the land they tilled.

Tenant right.

In either case, it was the custom to allow tenants of the above description a certain amount of indulgence, compared with ordinary tenants, in taking their rents by *batái* or *kankút*. If the prevalent rate for *batái* was equal division between landlord and tenant, than the *Abádkár* or *Banjār Shigáf* was allowed to deduct out of the crop a certain portion, varying from one-quarter to one-half of it. In dealing with cases of this description, the Settlement Officer records that he first enquired whether the cultivator asserted any proprietary claim. As a rule, such a claim was rarely raised. Among Muhammadans, the idea of hereditary property is very strong, and a man whose family has been one hundred years out of possession, is still popularly recognised as the owner of what once belonged to his ancestors. Generally speaking then, the cultivator at once answered that he was not the owner, but that such a person was. The privileges which either party possessed were then enquired into, and it was generally found that the cultivator, after paying his share of the revenue, enjoyed whatever profit was left on his cultivation, giving only five per cent. on his quota of the Government demand ordinarily in grain or kind to the nominal proprietor; but the

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ties and Tenures.

Tenant right.

cultivator was not allowed to transfer his rights by sale, or gift or mortgage.

The circumstances which produced this condition of affairs had next to be considered, and if it turned out that the cultivator had been enjoying favourable terms for such a length of time as to render it a matter of moral certainty that he must have reimbursed himself both the principal and the interest of his original outlay of capital or labour, then it was settled that, for the future, he required nothing beyond a recognition of his right to occupy the land he held, subject to a fixed money payment, which in such cases was assessed at an increase of from 35 to 40 per cent. including extra cesses, on the revenue demand of the land. Excluding cesses, 25 per cent. is the highest rate of *mālikāna* paid by any tenant. In those instances where it was found that the expenditure incurred by the cultivator had not been made good to him, a certain number of years, varying with the circumstances of each case, was fixed, during which he was to pay at certain favourable rates, and after the lapse of the period so fixed, his rent was to be brought up to the standard of similarly circumstanced cultivators. But it was only in the *bādi* or *sailāb* land that an arrangement of the above nature could be made. Where the land was dependent for its irrigation on a well, other circumstances had to be taken into account, not only the original outlay, but the annual expenditure for wear and tear of the well and of its machinery. And as it is generally a very unsatisfactory arrangement to allow the landlord to undertake the repairs of the well, the cultivator always had the option given him of doing so; and, if he consented, then he was allowed to pay at revenue rates with an increase of from 12 to 18 per cent., which increase went to the proprietor as *hag-malikāna*. The difference between the 12 or 18 per cent. and the 50 per cent. of profits, remained with the cultivator to enable him to make necessary repairs; the proportion of the profits thus made over to the cultivator, varying of course with the nature of the repairs which he would probably be called on to execute. If the cultivator refused to undertake the execution of his own repairs, he received but a small share of the profits, the bulk going to the landlord, who was in future to be responsible for keeping the well in fair working order.

Rates of rent.

Out of 1,132 hereditary occupants of well lands, 56½, or about half, keep the well in repair themselves, the proprietors being responsible for the repair of the wells irrigating the lands held by the remaining 568 cultivators.

Of the former—

215 pay from 5 to 10 per cent.
211 " " 12 to 18 "
14 " " 20 to 25 "
90 " a lump sum in cash.
4 " varying rates in kind.

In the latter case—

91 pay from 5 to 10 per cent.
18 " " 12 to 18 "
21 " " 20 to 25 "
71 " a lump sum in cash.
297 " varying rates in kind.

In addition to the above there are a few who, with the consent of the proprietors, are excused all payment on account of *mālikāna*.

In certain tracts old
cultivators recorded
as proprietors

These remarks do not apply to the *Kālowāl tahsil*, or the *Zail Mūsā* received by transfer from *Chūjrat*. In those parts of the district, the heavy assessments of the Sikh times had quite

trampled out proprietary rights, and artisans, and village servants, and proprietors, all paid the Government revenue by an equal rate, levied, generally speaking, on the number of ploughs employed by each man. In these parts of the district, cultivators of long standing were recorded as owners of the land in their occupancy and they paid their revenue at the village revenue rates. They had of course no proprietary title in any of the village lands, except what was in their actual possession as cultivators.

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In the Salt Range and Tiwāna *thal*, tenant rights were of comparatively small importance, for the number of non-proprietary occupants of land here is very inferior to the number in the other portions of the district. The hills and the *muhār* are the only tracts where cultivation is carried on to any large extent, and these divisions are held by brotherhoods of cultivating proprietors of the Awān tribe, with scarcely an outsider among them. The only exceptions are where whole villages belong to saintly characters, of which there are three in the Salt Range, and, in the *muhār*, the villages owned by the Janjūa tribe. In the former, almost the entire cultivation is in the hands of non-proprietors, the proprietors taking their rents by *batāi* at easy rates, usually a third of the produce. In the latter, the Janjūa proprietors, through apathy and indifference, have allowed not only rights of occupancy to grow up, but have given opportunity to men of other tribes to creep in and supplant them in the proprietorship of a greater part of the lands still left to them by the Awāns. Of course these last are proprietors of their own holdings only, and have no share in the common land or common profits.

Tenant rights in the Salt Range and *thal*.

Disputes concerning water are a most fertile source of riots and affray, more especially in the Salt Range. The two forms which irrigation from hill-torrents assumes will be described in Chapter IV, Section A. These rights were most carefully ascertained and recorded at the regular Settlement.

Irrigation rights.

The issue was much the same in every case, *viz.*, whether the right to irrigate by either of the two recognized modes existed, and had been enjoyed continuously or not; or whether the claimant's land had only received water by accidental overflow (called *uchhāl*) when, the stream bursting its banks, all came in for a share; and be it remarked that the distinction here indicated is a most important one, as those who have the right to divert the drainage into their fields benefit by every shower, however small, while those who are not included in this category only obtain water after heavy and continuous rain.

As a matter of course, trees growing in lands held in severalty belong to the shareholder in whose land they stand, and the same with regard to trees within the village site, with exception to such as are to be found within the courtyards of houses inhabited by any of the village servants, who have only rights in trees of their own planting. The rule regarding trees growing on the boundaries of two adjacent fields, everywhere except in the Salt Range and *muhār*, is, that they shall belong half to the owner of each field; but in the tracts named it is laid down that trees in such positions are the exclusive property of the owner of the field on the higher level:

Rights in trees.

where taken, it goes to defray some portion of the village expenses. *Prii* is the income from fees paid by travelling merchants for watering their cattle at the wells in the *thal*. The fee is nowhere else levied; the proceeds, as in the case of *dharat*, go to reduce the *malba*. The amount is never very great.

These are only levied in the *bdr* and *thal* villages. In the former tract, the cattle of outsiders grazing in the village common lands, are included in the annual distribution of the sum assessed on cattle; and in the latter, such cattle, if allowed to graze in the village pasture grounds, are charged at certain fixed rates, the proceeds being devoted to reducing the quota payable by the cattle of the village itself.

The figures in the margin show the number of headmen in the several *tahsils* of the district. The village headmen succeed to their office by hereditary right, subject to the approval of the Deputy Commissioner. Each village, or, in large villages, each main division of the village, having one or more, who represent their clients in their dealings with the Government, are responsible for the collection of revenue, and are bound to assist in the prevention and detection of crime. No *zaildar* or chief headmen are appointed in this district.

The village headmen receive a remuneration of five per cent. on the land revenue of their village, which they collect in addition to the Government demand for which they are responsible. Of the headmen above enumerated, 51 persons enjoy *suftaid poshi*, or *zamsudars* incomes of different amounts in the district.

Colonel Davies thus describes the state of affairs he found to exist at the Regular Settlement, and his consequent action:—

"During the progress of the measurement, and while I was collecting data for the assessment, it became known to me that when the first Summary Settlement was made, the old Sikh headmen, never having paid revenue in cash before, and fearing that they might be held liable in their persons and property on every, even the slightest, occasion of default, thinking to strengthen their position thereby, had associated with themselves a number of their relatives, and in fact any one who would join them in bearing an unknown and much dreaded responsibility. Inquiry also showed that during the Sikh rule, while each principal section in a village might have its managing head, yet there was usually but one man who was recognized by the local authority as the headman of the village, and who received the lion's share of the *indam* allowed as a deduction from the collections and is now known as the *indmdar*. Under these circumstances it seemed to me that good policy and justice alike counselled a restoration of the former status, for it is clearly our object to have in these men a class which shall be possessed of some weight and authority in the country, and for this an income which shall place each individual above the necessity of himself tilling the ground is a *sine qua non*; at the same time there were no long established rights to induce me to hesitate before applying the axe to an evil which was of comparatively recent growth."

In all large villages where many outsiders had obtained a proprietary footing, an additional five per cent. has been imposed on

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Grazing dues.

Village Officers.

Village headmen.

Tahsil.	Village Headmen.
Thana	651
Shahpur	463
Khushab	277
Total	1,391

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ties and Tenures.

Alluvion and
diluvion.

the reason for this is obvious, as the high embankments in these parts of the district, rendered necessary by the requirements of the peculiar system of irrigation in vogue, are raised at the expense of the owner of the land benefiting by them.

The local custom in respect of land lost in and gained from the river varies on the banks of the Jhelum and Chenáb. The custom which from time immemorial has been in force on the Jhelum, is that locally known by the name of *vadrjár banna*. The words literally mean "a boundary on either side," but the phrase is commonly accepted to mean, that the river is not considered as a boundary at all; that the original area of the estate is alone looked to, and, whether in the bed of the river or out of it, the lands comprised within those limits remain for ever a part of the estate. The rule probably had its origin in the fickle nature of the stream, and was devised by the original settlers on both banks for their mutual protection. However this may be, there is no doubt of the existence of the custom. It was clearly established by enquiry from the *samindárs* of villages on both banks of the river, and is further attested by the fact that a large proportion of estates so situated have land on both banks. Nothing can be theoretically fairer than the rule, and no great difficulty is experienced in its practical application, now that a regular survey and settlement of the estates on both banks have been made. On the Chenáb, on the other hand, enquiry showed that in such cases the usage known as the *sikandri hadd* law has always prevailed. This rule is precisely that prescribed for observance in Sections IV and V of Regulation XI of 1825, viz., that where land is gained by gradual accession, it shall be considered an increment to the estate to whose land it is thus annexed, but not when the river by a sudden change of course transfers a portion of land from one estate to another, without destroying the identity of the land so removed.

Items of miscellane-
ous income.

The village dues consist of the following:—(1.) *Kamidna*; (2.) fees on saltpetre manufactories; 3, *Dharat*; (4.) *Pivi*. Each of these require a few words to be said in explanation. *Kamidna* is, as its name imports, the fund formed of fees paid by village artisans and other non-proprietors for the privilege of residing and exercising their calling in towns and villages. It is paid everywhere except in the *Bár*, where a portion of the revenue is distributed over houses. In towns the proceeds are appropriated by Government; in villages they are at the disposal of the proprietary communities, and are devoted either to paying the *chaukidár* or defraying village expenses. In villages within the boundaries of which *ahlis*, or saltpetre mounds, exist in favourable situations, parties manufacturing the salt pay a fee of one rupee per pan for the privilege of digging earth. The proceeds of this source of common income is divided by the proprietor rateably on their revenue liabilities. *Dharat* is the sum which is paid for the monopoly of weighing by the party who succeeds in obtaining the appointment of village *dharwadí*, or weighman, he himself taking something, as his wage, from both seller and buyer. During the Sikh times this was one of the many perquisites of the village representatives; now,

where taken, it goes to defray some portion of the village expenses. *Pévi* is the income from fees paid by travelling merchants for watering their cattle at the wells in the *thal*. The fee is nowhere else levied; the proceeds, as in the case of *dharat*, go to reduce the *malba*. The amount is never very great.

These are only levied in the *bár* and *thal* villages. In the former tract, the cattle of outsiders grazing in the village common lands, are included in the annual distribution of the sum assessed on cattle; and in the latter, such cattle, if allowed to graze in the village pasture grounds, are charged at certain fixed rates, the proceeds being devoted to reducing the quota payable by the cattle of the village itself.

The figures in the margin show the number of headmen in the several *talukhs* of the district. The village headmen succeed to their office by hereditary right, subject to the approval of the Deputy Commissioner. Each village, or, in large villages, each main division of the village, having one or more, who represent their clients in their dealings with the Government, are responsible for the collection of revenue, and are bound to assist in the prevention and detection of crime. No *zaildár* or chief headmen are appointed in this district.

The village headmen receive a remuneration of five per cent. on the land revenue of their village, which they collect in addition to the Government demand for which they are responsible. Of the headmen above enumerated, 51 persons enjoy *sujaíd posht*, or *zamindárs indms* of different amounts in the district.

Colonel Davies thus describes the state of affairs he found to exist at the Regular Settlement, and his consequent action:—

"During the progress of the measurement, and while I was collecting data for the assessment, it became known to me that when the first Summary Settlement was made, the old Sikh headmen, never having paid revenue in cash before, and fearing that they might be held liable in their persons and property on every, even the slightest, occasion of default, thinking to strengthen their position thereby, had associated with themselves a number of their relatives, and in fact any one who would join them in bearing an unknown and much dreaded responsibility. Inquiry also showed that during the Sikh rule, while each principal section in a village might have its managing head, yet there was usually but one man who was recognized by the local authority as the headman of the village, and who received the lion's share of the *inám* allowed as a deduction from the collections and is now known as the *inamdar*. Under these circumstances it seemed to me that good policy and justice alike counselled a restoration of the former status, for it is clearly our object to have in these men a class which shall be possessed of some weight and authority in the country, and for this an income which shall place each individual above the necessity of himself tilling the ground is a *sine qua non*; at the same time there were no long established rights to induce me to hesitate before applying the axe to an evil which was of comparatively recent growth."

In all large villages where many outsiders had obtained a proprietary footing, an additional five per cent. has been imposed on

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Village Communi-
ties and Tenures.

Grazing dues.

Village Officers.

Village headmen.

Talukh.	Village Headmen.
Pérs	651
Shikhar	465
Khushab	277
Total	1,393

Chapter III, D.	these "proprietors of their holdings," the proceeds going to the most influential <i>lambardār</i> . Doubts were, at the time, expressed if the doubling of the allowance was legal; but in reality there was nothing novel in the measure, the extra allowance being in fact identical with the <i>wārisānā</i> imposed on the same class in the Jhelam and Rāwal-pindi districts; but the amount being small, it was thought preferable to confer it on the only member of the community who under the Sikh revenue system had enjoyed proprietary rights, than to fritter it away by dividing it among the whole proprietary body.
Village Communi- ties and Tenures.	Village servants consist of the village carpenter, blacksmith, shoemaker, potter, barber and sweeper. Each has his appointed work, and in return for his services, receives certain fixed dues from the proprietors at each harvest, which dues of course vary in proportion to the work that is required of each servant; for instance, in the tracts where tillage is mainly dependent on wells, the potters receive from three to four <i>pais</i> , equivalent to from 20 to 25 <i>seers</i> of grain, at each harvest; on the other hand, in the regions where artificial irrigation is unknown they receive nothing. In the same way, the rates of remuneration to the other village servants vary according to the demand on their labour, influenced by the peculiar circumstances of each division of the district.
Village headmen.	The pay of a permanent agricultural labourer is always in kind. He receives generally 2½ maunds out of every 100 maunds of produce. Taking wheat as being worth on an average Rs. 2-8 per maund, the labourer's earnings would represent Rs. 6-4 per 100 maunds of wheat grown on the land in which he had worked. The condition of such labourers has improved since annexation; for though the rate of payment in kind remains the same, yet the vast increase in the production of marketable commodities and the consequent increase of the demand for hired labour, and the high money value always obtainable, has at least doubled the actual value of the grain payments.
Agricultural labourers.	It is customary in this district to employ hired field labourers for weeding, reaping, threshing, sifting and stacking. They are paid in cash and kind as follows:— For weeding, Rs. 2 per acre (in cash). For reaping, 1 sheaf out of 21 (in kind). For threshing and cleaning, 4 <i>seers</i> of corn per day, and a cake.
These men are the sweepers, carpenters, ironsmiths, potters and shoemakers who, when not employed in field labour, work at their trade.	The number employed on field labour in this district is estimated at 4 per cent. of the total population.
These men are as well-to-do as the poor agriculturists who cultivate their own lands, as regards indebtedness and their ability to subsist with fair ease from harvest to harvest in average years. They subsist on their earnings by working in the fields and at their handicrafts, and rarely open a credit account with a village trader.	The wages of labour prevailing at different periods are shown in Table No. XXVII, though the figures refer to the labour market of towns rather than to that of villages.
Petty village grantees.	The last two lines of Table No. XVI show the number of persons holding service grants from the village, and the area so held.

The figures are extraordinarily small ; but they refer only to land held free of revenue, which is by no means the only form which these grants assume. Sometimes the land is leased to the grantee at a favourable rent or on condition of payment of revenue only ; sometimes the owner cultivates and pays the revenue, making over the produce to the grantee ; while occasionally the grant consists of the rights of property in the land, which, subject to the usual incidents, such as responsibility for revenue and the like, vest in the person performing certain specified services at such time and for so long as he performs them. These grants are most commonly made to village menials and watchmen on condition of, or in payment for, services rendered, to attendants at temples, mosques, shrines, or village rest-houses so long as they perform the duties of the post, and for maintenance of monasteries, holy men, teachers at religious schools, and the like.

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ties and Tenures.

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Table No. XXXII gives statistics of sales and mortgages of land ; Tables Nos. XXXIII and XXXIII A show the operations of the Registration Department ; and Table No. XXXIX, the extent of civil litigation. But the statistics of transfers of land are exceedingly imperfect ; the prices quoted are very generally fictitious ; and any figures which we possess afford but little real indication of the economical position of the landholders of the district. There are no large bankers in the district, but every village has its petty money-lender, generally of the Khatri caste, to whom the people are largely indebted. The Deputy Commissioner reports that " the peasantry are generally in debt. This is due partly to a succession of several seasons of drought, but chiefly to the very improvident and extravagant habits of the agricultural classes in respect of marriage expenses, useless establishments of retainers, dress and the like. It is also due partly to the high interest obtained by money-lenders for loans, for which the rate without security is often as high as Rs. 6-4-0 per cent. per month, or Rs. 75-12 per annum. On mortgages the rate varies with the nature of the security from one to two per cent per mensem."

Poverty or wealth
of the proprietors.

CHAPTER IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

SECTION A.—AGRICULTURE, ARBORICULTURE, AND LIVE-STOCK.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture, Arboriculture, and Live-Stock.

General statistics of agriculture.

Table No. XIV gives general figures for cultivation and irrigation and for Government waste land; while the rain fall is shown in Tables Nos. III, IIIA, and B. Table No. XVII shows statistics of Government estates. Table No. XX gives the areas under the principal staples, and Table No. XXI the average yield of each. Statistics of live-stock will be found in Table No. XXII. Further statistics are given under their various headings in the subsequent paragraphs of this chapter. Land tenures, tenants, and rent, and the employment of field labour have already been noticed in Chapter III, Section D.

Agricultural tracts.

The agricultural conditions and practice of the district naturally differ from one to another of the physical tracts into which the district may be divided. These are five in number: (1) the river circle, including the low lying lands on either side of the Jhelum and Chenáb, which, where not actually inundated by the floods, have the subsoil water within a moderate distance of the surface; (2) the hill circle, consisting of the Salt Range and its valleys; (3) the *mohár* or plains lying immediately at the foot of the Salt Range, and receiving water from the streams which issue thence; (4) the *dandá* or intermediate tract which separates the *mohár* from the great pasture grounds; (5) the *bár* and *thal*, or the great steppes lying between the rivers.

The river circle.

The agriculture of the Sháhpur riverain differs little from that of the corresponding tract in Jhang, which is very fully described in the Gazetteer of that district. Thus, though the circle includes the greater part of the whole cultivation, it will not be necessary to describe it minutely here. The soils are broadly divided into three strips; the *hithár* or alluvial tract immediately bordering on the river, and annually fertilized by its floods; the *utár* or high lands fringing the central plateaux, but in which the nearness of the water due to the proximity of the river, renders irrigation from wells possible, or to which the river water itself is conducted by means of inundation canals; and the *nukká* or slope which separates the *hithár* from the *utár*, and is intermediate in physical character as well as in position. The riverain of the left bank of the Jhelum is distinctly superior to that of the right bank; the inundations are less extensive, the soil is of poorer quality, and so much of it as is not actually flooded by the river is too often so impregnated with salts as to be unfit for cultivation.

The hill tract.

A knowledge of the constitution of the Salt Range would tell us, apart from actual experience, how fertile must its soil be; for

it is well known that the rich loams of England, and its best wheat soils, are formed by the gradual admixture of the constituents of limestone and sandstone-rocks, with clay, where these are found in contact; and the range here abounds in all these ingredients of a rich soil. Among them, lime prevails largely; and to its presence is doubtless owing the unusually large average yield per acre of wheat, obtained as the result of numerous experiments in different parts of these hills. In appearance the soil closely resembles the alluvium deposited by the rivers, but is perhaps a degree lighter. It preserves the same character throughout this portion of the range, the only marked variation being in the flat table land to the east about Jábá and Pail, where it is more sandy and less fertile. But although, speaking in general terms, the soil must be pronounced very fertile, yet its productive powers differ greatly in the several villages, and even in the same village, according as its situation places it more or less in the way of receiving the fertilizing deposits brought down by the hill torrents after rain. Through the area of one village will flow three or four distinct streams, laden with the riches gathered during a course of many miles, while another will be dependent for its supply of moisture on the surface drainage from a few low hills alone. The former will be able, on all the land within the immediate influence of the stream, to raise a double crop, each as good as the one that preceded it, and so on from year to year; while the lands of the other, after yielding an inferior crop, will have to lie fallow for a year to recover strength. It is this state of things which has led to the popular classification of soils into *kail*, or land directly irrigated by a torrent; *mairá*, or that which receives only the surface drainage from a few low hillocks, or land lying above it; and *rakar* soil which is dependent for its moisture on the rains and dews of heaven alone. The texture of the soil called *mairá*, is, as a rule, looser and lighter than *kail*, while *rakar* is characterized by being more stony than either. The fields are laid out in gradually descending terraces, surrounded each with an embankment or *band*, till the lowest level is reached. To those who have seen much of this kind of cultivation, it is not difficult to distinguish at a glance the more valuable *kail* from the inferior *mairá* lands. The former are, as a rule, near to some torrent, and to enable them to benefit fully from the large volumes of water that come rushing down the drainage channels after heavy rain, the *bands* that surround the fields must be both high and strong; where this is the case, the soil becomes well saturated, and at the same time receives a rich deposit of alluvium. The *bands* of the *mairá* fields not being required to withstand any great pressure of water, are much lower; so that if there were no other guide, the class to which any particular field belongs might be roughly judged of by the size of the embankment surrounding it.

There are two methods of distribution of the water of the hill torrents in use: first, by shares, the right to the water often residing exclusively in certain families; secondly, by means of dams thrown across the beds of torrents. In the former case, spurs are thrown out, and so made as to carry into the sharer's private duct,

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as much of the entire volume of water brought down by the stream as is due to his share. In the latter case, when the person entitled to a share in the water has irrigated his fields, the *band* is cut away by those whose lands lie lower down the stream; and water in this comparatively dry climate is of so much value, that not a drop of the precious element is ever allowed to be wasted, or to pass off into the fields of those not entitled to participate in its benefits. There is little or no artificial irrigation in these hills. There are, it is true, a few wells; but they are invariably made over to *maliárs* or market gardeners, who content themselves with growing a few acres of vegetables round each. For the rest, the soil is dependent for its supply of moisture on the periodical rains alone. All that need be said further in the matter of natural irrigation is, that the *Sún* valley is by far the best supplied; the high hills to the south and west act as vast receivers, and the rain falling on them is discharged through numerous channels, in large volumes, of which the villages along those sides monopolize the greater part. The estates lying in the centre and on the opposite (north) side of the valley are less favoured in this respect, and their lands are, as a consequence, not so fertile. In the next rank comes the *Khabakki* valley; to this succeed the smaller valleys scattered throughout the broken ridges on the southern side of the range; and, last of all, at a considerable distance, follow the flat tablelands of the eastern division.

The *Muhár* tract.

The *Muhár* is a fertile strip of alluvial land from three to four miles in width which slopes rapidly away from the hills and is closely intersected by the beds of torrents. It is succeeded by level plains, in places barren owing to saline impregnation; but elsewhere consisting of good cultivable land. The soil in this tract is a stiff marl, only second in fertility to the best soils of the Salt Range. With a good supply of water, the crops grown on it are splendid; but then the fact has to be borne in mind that the actual supply is both precarious and insufficient. In one respect, however, the villages here possess an immense advantage over those of the Salt Range. They have land more than sufficient for their requirements, for, whereas the cultivable area in the hills is only a seventh of the area actually under tillage, the land available for this purpose here is more than double the land already taken up for cultivation. Thus the *zamíndárs* of this circle are enabled to change the site of their cultivation nearly every year, and to allow the abandoned land to lie fallow at least two years, and such is the custom. The quality and texture of the soil may be said to be practically the same throughout the circle, the only circumstance which here, as in the Salt Range, lends a varying value to it in the several estates, is the greater or less supply of drainage irrigation which it receives. The division of soils into *ná'adár* and *rárhídár* has also reference to the same circumstance. The former is the *hail* of the plains, the soil which is directly irrigated from one of the torrents; the latter that which is dependent on the more precarious and scanty drainage from the slopes of hills, or plots of waste land above it. The style of cultivation here is almost the same as in the Salt Range, the only difference being that the slope

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in the *mohár*.

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ces.

above 60 feet to the *bār* and *thal*. The irrigation from hill streams has already been noticed at page 59.

Table No. XXII shows the number of cattle, carts, and ploughs in each *tahsil* of the district as returned in 1878-79. The following are the necessary implements for a small holding, with their average values:—

Plough	1 0 0
Panjāl yoke	0 8 0
Khopah, blinkers	0 4 0
Kahl, spade	1 0 0
Dātrī, reaping hook	0 2 0
Rambā, small spade	0 4 0
Kulhārī, hatchet	0 8 0
Nālī, drill for depositing seed...	0 8 0
Chhaj, basket for carrying manure	0 8 0
Taraugar, sack	0 4 0
Karrāī, kind of spade for levelling	0 8 0
Sohāgā, harrow-log	0 12 0
Jandri, spike harrow...	0 4 0
Karrāh, spud	0 6 0
						6 12 0
Well necessities	61 11 0
One pair bullocks	50 0 0
Grand Total ...						118 7 0

Manure and
rotation of crops.

The following description of the use of manure and the system of rotation of crops as practised in the district, was furnished for the Famine Report of 1879 (page 248):—

	Constantly manured.	Occasionally manured.	Not Manured.	Total.	Percentage which bear two or more crops annually
Irrigated land ...	2	2	95	100	2
Unirrigated land	100	100	1
Total ...	1	2	97	100	1

"The table in the margin shows the proportion of the cultivated land manured yearly, constantly, and occasionally, and not manured at all.

"The average weight of manure used per acre per annum on land constantly manured is 160 maunds. On land occasionally manured, the manure used per acre is also 160 maunds; such lands require manure

yearly, or every second or third year according to the quality of the soil. As a rule, unmanured irrigated land is allowed to be fallow for six months, *i.e.*, only one crop is taken from it. It is then ploughed four times and sown; but land unirrigated and not manured lies fallow for a year, and sometimes longer, when, if there is a timely rain, it is ploughed up from four to six times in this district."

Thus the ordinary means by which the productive powers of land are economized, increased, and renewed, (1) rotation of crops, (2) manuring, and (3) fallows, are all to a certain degree practised in this district. Along the rivers nature allows of no interference, but makes as she wills. As soon as the crop is cut, the river rising inundates the land, and when it retires it is found that a deposit of sand, or one of alluvium, of more or less richness has been left. If fit for cultivation at all, the land is practically new, and as such requires no extraneous help to increase its fertility, and the crop that is most valuable (wheat), is grown year after year

without intermission. But on passing out of the range of the river floods, and entering the tract where tillage depends on artificial irrigation, the case becomes altogether altered. Here we have a number of fixed circles (with wells as their centres) beyond the circumference of which cultivation cannot ordinarily pass, and the area being limited, each of the aids to agriculture enumerated above is successively brought into play, to obtain from the soil as large a return as possible. Suppose, for example, that fifty acres of land are attached to a well: of this twenty acres will be sown with spring crops, the same extent of land lying fallow, together with ten acres sown during the preceding autumn harvest. After the spring crop is cut, half of the same land will be sown with autumn crops, and for the next spring harvest there will be the twenty acres which have been lying fallow. This will leave half the land lately under spring crops, and ten acres of the previous autumn harvest, to form the fallow, which will receive repeated ploughings and manurings, till its turn comes round to be cultivated again. By this means each plot of land receives rest alternately, once for three, and the next time for four harvests. On a well of this size the proportions in which the ordinary crops are grown would be nearly as follows:—

Rabi (Spring)	Wheat	14 acres.
	Barley	2 "
	Poppy	1 "
	Turnips for feeding bullocks	8 "
Total					20 "
Kharif (Autumn)	Cotton	3 acres.
	Chinā	1 "
	Bājrá	1 "
	Charif for bullocks	5 "
Total					10 "

The general rule to be deduced from this statement is that an autumn crop may, and often does, follow a spring crop in the same land, but the converse of this is never seen.

In the Salt Range, the soil is ordinarily too rich to require a lengthened repose. The tract within the immediate influence of the hill torrents, called *hail*, like the alluvial tracts bordering the rivers, is fertilized at short intervals by the deposits brought down by the streams, and yields double crops in never-ending succession; and for the remainder, experience has shown that a fallow extending over twelve months, during which the surface is repeatedly turned up by the plough, is amply sufficient to restore it to full vigour. The invariable rule in these lands is that an autumn follows a spring crop, and then the land is allowed to lie fallow for a whole year. The *zamindárs* say that the *bājrá*, which here usually follows wheat, restores the productive powers of the soil: but this must not be understood too literally; they mean, probably, that *bājrá* is the one crop of all others which least unfits the lands to produce wheat; and here experience has doubtless taught them aright. It may be added, that the use of manure is little known throughout this part of the district. In the plains along the base of the hills

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land is so plentiful, that the site of cultivation is shifted very often : three years fallow succeed three years cultivation, but the crops are nearly always the same, wheat and gram for the spring, and *bājra*, with perhaps a little cotton and pulses, for the autumn crop. The only exception to this rule is in the *nāladār* land, the *hail* of the plains, which from being twice in the year covered with a rich deposit of alluvium brought down by the torrents after rain, is enabled to produce annually two crops without requiring any rest. Here also the use of manure is ignored, nature having provided a better substitute.

Principal staples.

Crop.	1880-81.	1881-82
Kangol ...	43	238
Chin ...	5,491	5,116
Nafar ...	31	99
Mish (Urd) ...	310	343
Aling ...	3,670	4,103
Masur ...	964	705
Coriander ...	4	7
Chilies ...	32	8
Other drugs and spices ...	19	2
Linseed ...	38	63
Mustard ...	12,263	11,163
Til ...	1,755	1,949
Tara Misra ...	4,013	2,652
Hemp ...	210	190
Other crops ...	678	439

Crops.

Table No. XX shows the areas under the principal agricultural staples. The remaining acres under crop in 1880-81 and 1881-82 were distributed in the manner shown in the margin.

The following description of the principal staples and of the method of their cultivation is extracted from Colonel Davies' Settlement Report :—

The main harvest of the district is that of the spring.

The staple produce is wheat for the spring harvest and *bājra* (spiked millet) and cotton for the autumn crop. Wheat predominates so greatly as to cover in average years little less than half the entire cultivated area. *Bājra* covering about 20 per cent. is the next most extensively grown crop ; after which follow at long intervals cotton, covering 10 per cent., gram (*Cicer arietinum*), barley and *javār* (great millet), covering not 4 per cent., and the ordinary millets and pulses. Of the more valuable crops, sugarcane is grown exclusively along the Chenáb, and the poppy plant on wells, chiefly along the left bank of the Jhelum between Sháhpur and Bherá. The latter is a very paying crop, and its cultivation has made very rapid strides.

Wheat.

Wheat thrives best in the lowlands along the rivers, and here it is almost the only crop grown, for very soon after it is cut and carried, the streams, swollen by the melting of the snows, rise and inundate the area lately occupied by the crop, and only recede in time for a fresh sowing. The valleys of the Salt Range are peculiarly adapted, with reference both to quality of soil and climatic conditions, to the production of this staple, and thus we find it covering no less than 62 per cent. of the whole area under tillage in that part of the district. In lesser quantities it is raised on land artificially irrigated in the tracts called the *nakká*, but in the plains along the foot of the Salt Range, owing to deficiency of moisture and excessive heat, the proportion of this crop grown is very small and liable to frequent failures. In the still more arid parts of the district it may be said to be unknown. Wheat sowings commence, in the plains, in the month of Kátik (middle of October), in the hills nearly a month earlier. The seed is sown with the drill, about a maund to each acre of land. The only exception to this is in the land artificially irrigated, where, owing to the necessity of dividing the area to be sown into beds, in

order to ensure a regular distribution of the water, the better mode of putting the seed into the ground cannot be adopted, and recourse is had to hand-sowing. The yield varies greatly. In choice spots in the Salt Range actual trials have shown it to reach the almost incredible quantity of thirty-five maunds, and the produce of an acre of good *sailab* land when assisted by artificial irrigation cannot be less than twenty-four maunds. The average yield of every kind of soil, taken one with the other, the Settlement Officer fixed at at least twelve maunds. The crop ripens in the plains during the month of April; in the Salt Range it is not ready for the sickle till nearly a month later.

Bajra is one of the hardiest of the cereals, and thrives everywhere as a rain crop. Throughout the Khusháb *tahsil*, it forms the staple food of the agricultural population. In the plains round the base of the Salt Range, it is the chief crop grown during the autumn harvest; but, owing to the early setting in of the cold weather in the valleys above, it can only be successfully cultivated there in years when the rains set in early. In unfavourable seasons its place is taken by *til* (*Sesamum orientale*), *mung* (*Phaseolus mungo*), *mdsh* (*Phaseolus radiatus*) &c. South of the Jhelum *bajra* is much less grown, having a formidable rival in *javár* (great millet) the stalks of which supply valuable fodder for cattle, while those of *bajra* are useless. The fine seed of this plant is sown broad cast (about two *seers* to the acre) and afterwards is ploughed into the ground. Ten maunds to the acre is considered a good crop.

Cotton has always been very largely grown in this district. Few wells are without their patch of two or three acres of this plant. More than this cannot ordinarily be set apart for its culture, as it is a crop that requires constant attention in weeding and watering. Ripening, as cotton does, late in the year, all attempts to raise it in the Salt Range have hitherto failed; but in the plains immediately below, where the temperature is exceptionally high all the year round, the plant is successfully cultivated as a rain crop, and in favourable seasons yields abundantly. The seed is put into the ground in March at the rate of eight *seers* to the acre, and the pickings, commencing in October, last to the end of December, and even later. The average out turn is about one-and-a-half maunds of clean cotton per acre. The same plants are often made to yield three crops, by cutting them down level with the ground each year after the cotton has been gathered; at the same time the soil is well ploughed up between the roots and manured. The amount produced in the district has been estimated, on an average of four years, at thirty-two thousand maunds, of which about half is retained for home consumption, and the other half exported.

There is no district in the Punjáb that produces more of this drug than Sháhpur. The poppy plant requires a rich soil and abundance of moisture. The mode of culture is this; the land which it is proposed to sow with this crop is allowed to lie fallow for one season at least. During the rains it is repeatedly ploughed and well manured. It then remains untouched till the beginning of November, when it is prepared to receive the seed, which at the rate of half a *seer* to the

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Opium.

acre, is sown broad-cast, mixed with equal parts of sand to ensure equal distribution. Water is supplied as often as the surface shows signs of dryness. The young plants begin to show themselves about the twelfth day, and from this time, till the pods begin to ripen, the successful cultivation of the crop depends on the attention paid to watering, weeding and manuring. The pods begin to swell in March, and towards the end of this month, an estimate can be framed of the probable yield of opium. Traders then come forward, and buy the standing crop, after which the cultivator has nothing to do but supply water as required. The drug is obtained by making incisions in the pod with a three-bladed lancet. The incisions are made vertically, about half an inch in length, in the centre of the pod. Three strokes are made with the instrument each time, making nine cuts, and this is repeated four times at intervals of as many days, making 36 incisions in all, the whole operation extending over about a fortnight. The work is carried on during the middle of the day, as it is found that the heat assists the exudation of the juice. The morning following the making of each set of incisions, the juice which has exuded from the cuts is scooped off with shells, and collected in cups made of the leaves of the plant itself. It is estimated that one man, (women and children are not much employed in this work) can, on an average, incise the pods and collect the juice of about 10 *marlas* ($\frac{1}{16}$ acre) of the crop in a day; and as this is repeated four times, and the labourers are paid from two to four annas a day, the cost of extraction varies from eight to sixteen rupees an acre. The produce of an acre is from four to eight seers, the selling price from eight to twelve rupees. In the process of drying, the extract loses about a fourth of its weight. In 1881-82 the area under poppy cultivation was little below three thousand five hundred acres, the produce of which, at an average of six seers per acre, amounts to 525 maunds. Even reducing this by a fourth to allow for loss by drying, we have still the large quantity of three hundred and ninety-four maunds, which, at ten rupees a seer, represent no less a sum than Rs. 1,57,500. Careful enquiry has shown that, of the produce of the district, all but a few maunds leave it, the destination of by far the greater part being the great Sikh centres of Lahore and Amritsar.

Mehndi—(*Laursonia*
incrassata.)

This plant, so often seen in our gardens as an ornamental hedge, is extensively cultivated about Bherá, for the sake of the dye extracted from its leaves, which, dried and reduced to powder, forms a regular article of commerce. The mode of cultivating it is as follows:—The soil is prepared by repeated ploughings, not less than sixteen, and heavy manuring. Before sowing, the seed is allowed to soak in water for twenty-five days. It is then spread on cloth and allowed to dry partially. The plot of land in which it is proposed to grow the *mehndi* is then formed into small beds, and some days before sowing these are kept flooded. The seed is scattered on the surface of the water, and with it sinks into the ground. For the first three days after sowing, water is given regularly night and morning; after that only once a day. The young plant first ~~shows~~ above ground on the fifteenth day,

after which water is only given every other day for a month, when it is supplied at intervals of three days, and this is continued for another month, by which time the plants have become nearly two feet high. They are now fit for transplanting. The mode of conducting this operation is as follows :—The young plant on being taken out of the ground is reduced by nipping off about six inches from the centre shoot. After having been subject to this treatment, the young plants are singly put into holes previously dug for them at distances of about a foot from each other. They are then watered daily until they have recovered the shock of transplanting, and afterwards as they may require it. The fields are weeded regularly once a month. The first year nothing is taken from the plants, but after that they yield for years, without intermission, a double crop. At each cutting, about nine inches are taken from the top shoots of the plants. The two crops are gathered in Baisákh (April and May) and Kátik (October and November) of each year. The labourers employed in planting out the *mehndi*, instead of receiving their wages in money, are liberally fed as long as the operation lasts, and a distribution of sweetmeats takes place when it is over. The season for sowing is during the month of Baisákh; that of transplanting, Sáwan (July and August.) A year's produce of an acre of well grown *mehndi* is twenty maunds of dry leaves, of which about six maunds are gathered in the spring, and the rest during the autumn months; and the same plants continue to yield for twenty or twenty-five years.

The selling price of the leaves averages a rupee for twelve seers, so that the value of the crops per acre is about 66 rupees. After the first year, the expenses of cultivation do not much exceed those of other crops. The produce of the *mehndi* grown in this district is nearly all carried across the Jhelum, and sold in the northern districts; none of it finds its way to the south. Besides the use to which the leaves are ordinarily put, *viz.*, as a dye for the hair, hands, &c., they are also given to goats and sheep, &c., when attacked by itch.

Table No. XXI. shows the estimated average yield in pounds

Grain.	Agriculturists.	Non-agriculturists.	Total.
Wheat	419,421	949,544	1,368,965
Inferior grains	612,138	106,505	717,633
Pulses	102,021	117,228	219,249
Total	1,133,579	1,172,277	2,305,847

per acre of each of the principal staples as shown in the Administration Report of 1881-82. The average consumption of food per head has already been noticed at page 37. The total consumption of food-grains by the population of the district as estimated in 1878 for the purposes of the Famine Report is shown in maunds in the margin.

The figures are based upon an estimated population of 368,796 souls. On the other hand, the average consumption per head is believed to have been over-estimated. A rough estimate of the total production, exports and imports of food-grains was also framed at the same time; and it was stated (page 152, Famine Report) that

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Average yield. Production and consumption of food-grains.

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the annual deficiency which had to be supplied by importation was some 310,000 maunds, chiefly consisting of wheat from Bannu, Jhelum, and Gujrat.

Table No. XVIII shows the area of the several forests of the district which have been declared under the Forest Act, together with the degree of protection extended to each; while Table No. XVII shows the whole area of waste land which is under the management of the Forest Department. The following note on the forests of the district has been kindly furnished by Mr. Reuther of the Forest Department:—

"The *rakhs* under the control of the Forest Department in the Salt Range are situated partly in the Jhelum and partly in the Shāhpur district (Khushāb *tahsīl*), comprising 309 square miles in the former and 211 square miles in the latter district. As they are entirely similar in physical and accidental characteristics, one general description will apply to the *rakhs* in both districts."

The Salt Range.

"The general character of the Salt Range is that of an elevated tract, rising abruptly to an average height of 2,200 feet above the alluvial flats of the Jhelum river on the south, but descending more gradually to the undulating plateaux on the north, above which its mean elevation is not more than a thousand feet. Its general course is east by north to west by south, extending over a distance of about 150 miles by an average width of about ten miles. But to the east of Jalālpur the range is deflected sharply to the north for a distance of about eight miles, after which, assuming a north-easterly course, it reaches a height of 3,200 feet at Tillā, from which point it rapidly loses in height until it merges, and is finally lost, in the plain country north-east of Jhelum. The average width of the section east of Jalālpur is about three miles. At a distance of 36 miles from its western extremity, the course of the range meets with another abrupt turn to the north-west by north, descending sharply from the culminating point of the range at Sakesar (5,010 feet) to the Indus. With the section from Sakesar to the Indus, which lies in the Bannu district, the Forest Department is not concerned. North-east of Jalālpur, and detached from the Salt Range proper by the bed of the intervening Bunhar torrent, is an outlying tract formed almost entirely by the Tillā mountain and its eastern extension of undulating, barren country, intersected by numerous ravines. The Salt Range proper commences at Jalālpur, and from there extends westwards without a break, rising gradually but steadily from 1,800 to 3,000 feet near its centre, and finally culminating in the peak of Sakesar at an elevation of 5,010 feet. The width of the western part of the range also increases gradually from two and a half miles at Jalālpur (Jhelum district) to 20 miles at Jabbi (about 18 miles east of Sakesar in the Shāhpur district), from which latter point it again contracts until the width at Sakesar is reduced to ten miles.

Salt Range *rakhs*.

In the tract between Jalālpur and Sakesar lie the *rakhs* Ara, Makhiala, Kussuk, Dandot, Dalwal, Malot, Simli, and Nurpur (all in the Jhelum district), and Mangwāl, Katha Masrāl, Dilmiri, Kund, Dhokri, Choha, Warche, &c., in Shāhpur, in all of which *rakhs* the soil contains more or less abundant deposits of salt which frequently crop out on the surface. The whole of the southern portion of the range from Sakesar westwards forms one continuous chain, steeply scarped on its southern face, and bounded to the north by elevated plateaux of irregular surface configuration, here and there surmounted by minor escarpments facing southwards. But north-east of Khewra, where the Mayo Salt Mines are situated, a spur springs from the northern side of the range, separated from it by a broad expanse of rugged

country, and stretches to the north-east for a distance upwards of 80 miles. At its western extremity where it leaves the main mass of the range, this spur is formed by the Diljabbá mountain, the summit of which has an altitude upwards of 3,000 feet and a width of three miles; but further to the east the ridge declines to a mean height of 2,300 feet, and finally disappears in the broken ground near the right bank of the Jhelam river. This spur is covered by the the *rakhs* Diljabbá, Barali, Nili, Jindi, Lehri, Ban Samail, and Sagar, and contains no known deposits of salt.

"South-west of Diljabbá is the Drengan *rakh*, situated on a broad slope facing northwards, crowned by the ridge containing the 'Ohel' summit, the highest in the Jhelam district (3,701 feet). Its western extension dips down into a depression separating the 'Ohel' ridge from that of Karangal (3,526 feet), which latter on the western side terminates abruptly in a precipitous escarpment, but on the north descends gradually into the broken ground which extends for many miles beyond the northern boundary of the Salt Range. West of Karangal is the Choya-Saidan-Sháh valley with the Suria *rakh* on the north, the Rambalawan, Dharm-tirath, and Gandhala ridges on the east, and the Dalwal, Malot, and Simli *rakhs* on the south. The Simli ridge throws out a spur to the north which is separated by a narrow gap of more or less level country from the ridge comprising the Bagga, Samarkand, and Chinji *rakhs*. This ridge extending into the Shahpur district, pursues an easterly course, separated from the southern range of Salt *rakhs* by a broad plateau varying in width from four to twelve miles, but reuniting with the main mass of the range at Sakesar. This northern ridge comprises the *rakhs* Jábá, Khabakki, Dhadhar, Makrámi, Mardwál, Anga, Kotli Ugáli, and Chitta, none of which contain deposits of salt.

"One of the most characteristic of the physical features of the Salt Range is the steep precipitous escarpment on its southern face. This is most marked in the central portion from Jalálpur to Sakesar, where the range rises almost perpendicularly above the alluvial tract lying at its foot, and forms a fine facade of lofty cliffs, penetrated by numerous ravines and gorges. From this feature it might be inferred that the southern portion of the range is but scantily clothed with vegetation, and this is indeed the case. The whole of the southern escarpment, as well as the heights immediately above the precipitous cliffs, are almost devoid of vegetation, and the surface is composed of rugged, bare rock-masses, incapable of affording nourishment even to such hardy trees and shrubs as are indigenous in the Salt Range. The northern slopes, and the upper plateaux at some distance from the southern escarpment, are frequently covered with a more or less dense growth of shrubs, but as a general rule trees, excepting stunted specimens of *Acacia modesta*, *Olea cuspidata*, &c., are entirely absent.

"The predominating species of shrubs and trees met with in the Salt Range *rakhs* are *Dodonea viscosa* (*Sanatha*), *Adhadota vasica* (*Bahikar*), *Colastrus spinosus* (*Phataki*), *Acacia modesta* (*Phulai*), and *Olea cuspidata*, (*olive*); but here and there occur specimens of *Dalbergia sisso* (*Shisham*), *Acacia Arabica* (*Kikar*), and *Butea frondosa* (*Dhak*). In favourable localities, such as the summit of Tilla, Ohel, and Sakesar, many other species are found, such as *Pistacia integerrima* (*Kangar*), *Bauhinia variegata* (*Kalar*), *Odina wodier* (*Kamlai*), *Grewia oppositifolia* (*Dhamman*), *Punica granatum* (*Pomegranate*), *Tecoma undulata* (*Lahura*), *Buxus sempervirens* (*Box*), *Phoenix sylvestris* (*Palm*), *Chamoerops rithicana* (*Kilian*), *Dendrocalamus strictus* (*Bamboo*) &c. In the numerous ravines and torrent beds, clumps of *Nerium odorum* (*Oleander*) are common, and here and there the steep escarpments are covered with hanging masses of *Hedera helix*

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(Ivy). But on the whole the Salt Range is poorly wooded, and the existing trees are so stunted and starved as scarcely to deserve the name of trees.

"The following is a list of the trees, specimens of the wood of which were contributed to the Lahore Museum in 1864 from the Jhelam district and the Salt Range generally :—

Sissu (*Dalbergia sisso*).
Siriz (*Aceria siriza*).
Bakavn (*Melia azadirachta*).
Baniam (*Ficus Indica*).
Kamlai (*Odina nodier*).
Kihar (*Acacia Arabica*).
Kalkar (*Rhus acuminata*).
Wild olive, kau (*Olea Europæa*).
Her (*Euphyas fujuba*).
Phulaki (*Acacia modesta*).
Sohānjna (*Hyperanthera pterygos-*
perma).

Dhawan (*Grewia elastica*).
Kilau Walayati (*Parkinsonia*).
Mulberry, tul (*Morus Indica*).
Kachnar (*Bauhinia variegata*).
Lasura (*Cordia macro*).
Dhak (*Butea frondosa*).
Lakura (*Tecoma undulata*).
Jalidhar (*Symasporia spinosa*).
Large (*Rhus cotinus*).
Sagghar (*Ehretia elastica*).

Forest management.

"The Forest Department has been in charge of the Salt Range *rakhs* since 1870, but hitherto the system of treatment has been purely protective, and no marked improvement can be said to have taken place. But this is due to the incessant damage done by cattle, particularly camels, goats and sheep, which allow no seedlings to spring up, and commit great injury on existing trees, by browsing off the shoots and extremities of branches; to some extent also injury is traceable to the action of the inhabitants of the Salt Range, who not only commit frequent wood thefts, but constantly persist in lopping trees to provide food for their cattle. But exclusion of cattle once effected, the *rakhs* will undoubtedly improve rapidly. A few of the *rakhs*, such as Drengan and Parera, which in the days of the Sikh rulers were carefully preserved for the sake of the game they sheltered, prove by the favourable condition of the existing vegetation that the Salt Range is not incapable of producing a tolerably abundant growth of valuable fuel and grass, if not of timber. The present condition, however, of the *rakhs* being such as to preclude the possibility of exploitation, and to necessitate careful preservation of the existing vegetation, the policy hitherto pursued has been to maintain as strict a system of protection as circumstances permitted, and to avoid drawing upon the *rakhs* for supplies of fuel. In one instance, however, under the pressure of urgent necessity during the Afghan War, several extensive tracts in *rakhs* Nili, Jindi Paniala, and Garat were cleared of trees for the supply of fuel to the Punjab Northern State Railway. This is, however, the only occasion in which extensive fellings have taken place, and the tracts denuded of trees have been closed against cattle.

Mineral products.

"In addition to the pasture afforded by the Salt Range *rakhs* to the cattle of the villages in and near the Salt Range, some use is made of the mineral products, such as coal and building stone. Of the former many beds are known, some of which are worked; and during the first nine months of working 4,292 tons of coal were raised, from which Government realized Rs. 8,586 as royalty. The working of the coal is now under the control of the N. I. Salt Revenue Department and the royalty has been reduced from two rupees to four annas per ton. Building stone of superior quality is quarried in large quantities at Taraki (in *rakh* Nili) by the Engineers of the P. N. S. Railway, and occasionally contractors and others purchase stone at various localities of the Salt Range, paying to Government a royalty of four annas per 100 cubic feet. But the income from this

source is insignificant, for although superior building stone is abundant in all parts of the range, the demand for it is small.

"The following table shows the Salt Range forests of the Shahpur district. They all lie in the Khusháb *tahsil*. As yet there has been no forest Settlement, and the respective rights enjoyed by Government and by the villagers have not yet been defined. A few village communities enjoy the privilege of pasturing cattle and collecting dry wood; while the general proprietary right belongs to Government. Indeed these forests have not yet been declared under the Act, and the declaration and settlement of rights will probably be deferred till the district next comes under Settlement.

Forests under control of the Forest Department.

Name of Rakh.	Area in Acres.	Name of Rakh.	Area in Acres.
Chitta	1,177	Khura	1,306
Ugah	1,595	Kuradhi	1,887
Khabakki, Dhadhar, Makrami ...	22,891	Jabbt	5,657
Koti	1,162	Amb	12,884
Awra	3,729	Fatahpur	618
Jahá	8,243	Katab Miral	3,139
Mardwál	7,467	Jhanga Selo	2,714
Keri Podhi	2,135	Uchál	822
Kandana	1,782	Rawadi (Mitha Tawana) ...	3,192
Kalili	2,164	Jhilar	2,245
Fal	5,273	Sodhi	3,182
Chamakkí	657	Jhokri	2,254
Surakki	975	Choba	4,154
Dhamri	977	Warcha	13,511
Kund	2,692	Mangwál	9,681
		Uchala	5,144
		Total Area	1,34,824

"Besides the *rakhs* above described, which are situated in the Salt Range, there are 35 *rakhs*, comprising an aggregate of 142,920 acres, situated in the Bhera *tahsil*, in the elevated *bár* lands between the Jhelam and Chenab rivers. These lands came under the Forest Department in 1872, and Government rights in them are absolute. They produce pasture and wood fuel, consisting chiefly of *jhand*, *van*, *karil* and *mula*, of open growth, stunted, and gnarled. They also yield a little saltpetre. As yet no wood has been felled; the available supply may be estimated at 40 mannds per acre. The pasture and saltpetre are annually leased to contractors, the former yielding Rs. 22,500 and the latter, Rs. 100. The following figures show the names and areas of the *rakhs* :—

Names.	Acres.	Names.	Acres.
1. Bhalowál	3,069	19. Khan Muhammadwála ...	4,124
2. Bhalowál	897	20. Nabbi Shahwála	3,694
3. Pakhowál	1,062	21. Cháwa	18,391
4. Rukan	1,864	22. Deowál	6,150
5. Busál	4,170	23. Laláni	15,052
6. Ishar	1,879	24. Merullanwála	5,081
7. Míana Gondal	5,568	25. Kot Momna	7,999
8. Musá	1,606	26. Ghulapur	2,019
9. Dafar	5,482	27. Matila	14,148
10. Mona	4,178	28. Samoránwáli	2,367
11. Makhodudi	2,102	29. Bhágtánwáli	4,543
12. Vairowál	989	30. Mángni	3,651
13. Rattokála	2,055	31. Bhiki Khurd	2,552
14. Melowál	863	32. Abdál	932
15. Dhori	4,559	33. Upi	2,354
16. Sálím	3,700	34. Hujan	2,789
17. Chak Kázi	1,288	35. Pindí Rawán	1,904
18. Khojá Saláh	349		
		Total Acres	142,920

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Bhera forests.

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Live-stock.

Table No XX shows the live-stock of the district as returned at various times in the Administration Report. No peculiarities are recorded of the cattle, sheep, or camels, all of which are of the ordinary breeds and possessed of no peculiar excellence, with the exception perhaps of the *dumba* or fat-tailed sheep of the Salt Range, which is enabled, by the store of fat contained in its tail, to endure cold and scanty food in an unusual degree. The ordinary load for a camel is about six maunds. The district possesses several (it is said there are 15) excellent breeds of horses, well known even in distant parts of the Punjab, and prized both for pace and endurance. The *maliks* of Tiwana are well known horse-breeders, and possess many really fine animals:—

The price of a Bullock ranges from Rs.	15	to	Rs.	50
" " Buffalo ...	25	"	"	80
" " Camel ...	30	"	"	70
" " Horse (ordinary) ...	100	"	"	300
" " Donkey ...	6	"	"	18
" " Mule ...	50	"	"	100

Milch cattle, except the buffaloes, are in abundance in the *bār* and *thal* tracts of the district, and the *zamindars* realize a large profit by sale of *ghī* or clarified butter produced by these cattle. The buffaloes are kept in the Kondhi circle or villages on the banks of the rivers Jhelum and Chenāb. Bullocks are chiefly used on all farm work, such as ploughing, irrigating, &c. Buffaloes are very little used for such purposes, as they feel the heat and need to submerge themselves in the hot weather to keep in health and good condition. The *bār* cattle are particularly good. There are three distinct breeds of goats in the district, all good of their kind, known as the Salt Range, Chenāb and *bār* breeds. The following figures regarding the existing live-stock of the district are taken from a statistical statement submitted to the Commissioner of Agriculture, Punjab:—

Description of stock.	No.	Description of stock.	No.
Cows and bullocks ...	272,740	Mules ...	321
Buffaloes ...	40,478	Ponies ...	1,527
Sheep ...	132,830	Donkeys ...	10,860
Goats ...	69,463	Camels ...	8,235
Horses ...	2,825		
		Total ...	5,99,280

Government breeding operations.

Year.	Number of animals exhibited.	Number sold.	Prizes given.
1878-79 ...	261	43	Rs. 1,880
1879-80 ...	243	...	843
1880-81 ...	143	10	797
1881-82 ...	246	17	770
1882-83 ...	343	27	850

A horse show is annually held in this district under the sanction of Government. The first show was held in 1878-79. The particulars of the horse shows held during the last five years are shown in the margin. The number of branded mares for horse-breeding are 356, and only 65 for mule-breeding; but under orders of Government unbranded mares are allowed the service of Government donkey stallions

for the purpose of mule-breeding.

There are nine horse stallions in the district, *viz.* three Arabs, two thorough-breds and four Norfolk Trotters. There are also eight donkey stallions, *viz.* three Arabs, three Italian, one Spanish

and two country-bred. There are two passed *salutris* in the district whose work is superintended by the *cillddr*, also a passed man. They were educated at the Hapur Veterinary School. The number of colts geld by the *salutris* and *cillddrs* from January 1879 to December 1883, was 130. It is impossible to give any accurate data of the number of remounts purchased for the different branches of the army and by dealers, as *sawars* on leave throughout the year go about purchasing horses, and dealers are active in the same manner all the year round. The Government system of horse-breeding has been in operation in the district from 1872. Breeders in the Shahpur district have learnt from the example shown them at the "Kāla Court of Wards Estate," that to breed horses successfully they must adopt the liberty system, i.e., have enclosed runs with sheds, a plentiful supply of good water and good fodder, allowing young stock a feed of corn morning and evening, and as much liberty as possible to develop bone and sinew. They must also geld the colts early so as to ensure them the liberty that is necessary for their development.

A cattle fair was held on 15th and 16th March, 1893, in which 997 cattle of various classes were exhibited and 578 competed for prizes. The prizes amounted to Rs. 485. The *bār* cattle are particularly good. An experiment to improve the sheep of the district was tried by the introduction of Hissar rams, but hitherto it has proved a failure. Those sent succumbed to the extreme heat during the dry months which tries man and beast. However, in this district the *thal* and Salt Range sheep are famous for the indigenous breed, which could hardly be improved upon. Hissar bulls have improved the local breed very much, and their progeny is much appreciated by the people. The total number of these bulls now in the district is 16, and some more have been applied for by the District Committee.

The chief animal products are wool, *ghī*, and hides. It is estimated that the shearings of the large flocks of the *thal* and *bār* yield annually not less than twelve thousand maunds, or upwards of four hundred tons of wool. Of this, probably two-thirds are exported, and the remainder consumed in the manufacture of blankets and felts. The fleece of the *thal* sheep has the reputation of being the finest in the Panjāb. The sheep are sheared twice in the year, in the months of Chet (April) and Kātik (October), the average yield of each separate shearing, called a *pothi*, being about three-quarters of a *ser*. The wool is bought by the *pothi*, so that, in speaking of the market price, it is customary to quote the number of *pothis* obtainable for the rupee. Average selling price, four *pothis* per rupee, gives eight annas as the annual yield in cash per head of sheep to the owner. This will sufficiently account for the great rise in price of these animals of late years. The head-quarters of the trade in wool is Nūrpur, in the *thal*, where a superior kind of blanket or *lūi* is made. A good deal of the wool which is produced in the *bār* is made into felt at Bhera which supplies a large part of the Punjab with this article.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture,
Arboriculture
and Live-Stock.Government breeding
operations.

Wool.

Chapter IV. B.

Occupations,
Industries and
Commerce.*Ghi*.

Hides.

Ghi is also largely produced in the district, the annual outturn being probably not less than fifteen thousand maunds, of which about a third is consumed on the spot, and the remainder exported. In former days nearly the whole of the surplus produce found its way to Lahore and Amritsar, but of late years the trade in this article has been diverted towards Sindh and the frontier. Like that of almost all articles of consumption, the price of *ghi* has risen wonderfully since the country passed into our hands, and, whereas, prior to that event, five or six sers could be obtained for the rupee, now the same money will not purchase a third of that quantity.

Regarding hides, there is nothing more to be said than that many thousands are annually sent down the river for export to England, nearly all in their raw state.

SECTION B.—OCCUPATIONS, INDUSTRIES
AND COMMERCE.Occupations of the
people.

Table No. XXIII shows the principal occupations followed by males of over fifteen years of age as returned at the Census of 1881. But the figures are perhaps the least satisfactory of all the Census statistics, for reasons explained in the Census Report; and they must be taken subject to limitations which are given in some detail in Part II, Chapter VIII of the same Report. The figures in Table No. XXIII refer only to the population of fifteen years

Population.	Towns	Villages.
Agricultural ...	9,767	193,635
Non-agricultural ...	41,864	176,043
Total ...	51,631	369,677

of age and over. The figures in the margin show the distribution of the whole population into agricultural and non-agricultural, calculated on the assumption that the number of women and children dependent upon each male

of over fifteen years of age is the same whatever his occupation. These figures, however, include as agricultural only such part of the population as are agriculturists pure and simple; and exclude not only the considerable number who combine agriculture with other occupations, but also the much larger number who depend in great measure for their livelihood upon the yield of agricultural operations. More detailed figures for the occupations of both males and females will be found at pages 124 to 132 of Table No. XIII and in Table No. XIIB of the Census Report of 1881. The figures for female occupations, however, are exceedingly incomplete.

Principal industries
and manufactures.

Table No. XXIV gives statistics of the manufactures of the district as they stood in 1881-82. The manufactures of the district are few and unimportant. At Khusháb and Giroi and a few other places, *lángis* of silk and cotton are made somewhat largely and have a more than local reputation. The *lángi* is a long scarf either plain or coloured, and with or without embroidered ends. It is worn not as a turban, but round the shoulders like a scarf. These industries, however, though they have a reputation for excellence, are confined to the towns mentioned, and the amount of manufacture is not large compared with other districts. There is also a consider-

able manufacture of leather goods, and of gold and silver lace. These industries are confined principally to Khusháb and Bhera. The ironsmiths of Bhera are celebrated for their skill, and the hardware of that town is much sought after in the neighbouring districts.

The other manufactures of the district are turned and lacquered toys, &c., chiefly made at Sáhiwál; bankets woven all over the district, those of Núrpur being considered the best; mill-stones made at Katha at the foot of the hills; mats made in the hills, large numbers of which are exported to Lahore; felts already mentioned, for which Bhera is celebrated; and soap largely manufactured at the same place. The mineral products have already been described at pages 11 to 13. The following description is given of the process of tanning as carried on in this district:—

"A cow's hide is the most generally useful, being strong and soft; a good one is worth Rs. 2. A buffalo's hide is the strongest of all, but very hard. It is used for shoe-soles, &c.: worth about Rs. 4. A camel's hide is too hard for most purposes, but is used for making *ghí dabbas*: value Re. 1. A bullock's hide is inferior in usefulness to a cow hide. A horse's hide is scarcely any use at all, being too thin and fine. A goat's hide is useful for parts of women's shoes, &c.: value about two-and-a-half annas. The process of preparing a hide is as follows:—The skin is soaked a day and a night in water, then taken out and scraped. Then spread hair downwards on straw and after rubbing the upper side with one *chiták* of *sajji* and one-and-a-half *sers* of lime, and a little water, it is tied up with the *sajji* and lime inside. It is then soaked for six days in two *sers* of lime and water, after which it is rubbed on both sides with broken-up earthenware. This is repeated at intervals till the hair is all off. It is then taken out, well washed and scraped, and has now become an *adhauri*, or untanned leather. The tanning process then begins. Well bruised *kítar* bark (*Janí* is also used, but not considered so good) is soaked in water and the hide thrown in. When the tanning has left the bark, fresh bark is put in. This takes some days, after which the hide is sown up with *munj*, an aperture being left at one end, and hung up, the open end being uppermost. It is then half filled with bruised bark and water poured in, which, as it drops out, is caught in a vessel and poured back into the skin; this is continued until the lower part, when pricked, shows the colour of leather. The open end is then sown up, the other end opened, the skin inverted, and the process repeated with fresh bark, until the whole is tanned. The skin is then well washed, rubbed with the hand and dried in the sun. It is then soaked in water with bruised *madár* plants. *Til* oil is then rubbed over it, and it is again soaked a day in water. Then dried, sprinkled with water, rolled up, and beaten with clubs. It is then rubbed on the flesh side with a stick, called a *wéang*, made from the wild caper (*capparis aphylla*): the whole process, in the hot weather, takes about twenty-six days; in the cold, about eight days longer. Just before the skin is used, it is soaked for a day in a little water with a *chiták* of alum, four *chitaks* of pomegranate bark, a *chiták* of salt, and a *chiták* of *til* oil. During the day it is several times well twisted."

Mr. Lockwood Kipling, Principal of the Lahore School of Art, has kindly furnished the following note on some of the special industries of the district:—

Fine cotton goods bordered with silk, such as *lungis*, *patkas*, &c., are made at Khusháb in this district. They are of good quality and seem to be in fair demand. I know nothing of the ordinary country cloth, such as *khaddar* or *ghára*, and though it is probably produced here,

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations,
Industries
and Commerce.Principal Industries
and manufactures.

Tanning.

Cotton.

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations,
Industries and
Commerce.
Silk.

Wool.

Cutlery and Lapi-
dary work.

as in most other parts of the Punjab, there is no trustworthy information as to its quality or the quantity made for sale. Good coloured *khes*, loom-woven cheeks, and *bulbul chashm*, diapered cloths, are also made at Khusháb.

Pagris, and the other scarf-like forms of silk popular, are woven, sometimes plain and sometimes with gold ends, at Khusháb, which has a name for silk weaving and has sent good specimens to various exhibitions.

Felt or *nunda* rugs are made at Bhera and Khusháb, in both white and grey, unbleached or coloured wool, decorated with large barbaric patterns of red wool merely felted and beaten into the surface. The white felts bear no comparison with those of Kashmír and parts of Rájputána, and the texture is so loose and imperfect that they seem to be always shedding the goat's hair with which they are intermixed. The wool is not perfectly cleaned, and they are peculiarly liable to the attacks of insects. But they are among the cheapest floor coverings produced in the Province.

Goat's hair and camel's hair are worked up into rope, as in most pastoral districts. At Núrpur, *lois* or country blankets are made, but they have no special character of colour or texture.

The wares in wood and metal from this district, which have been sent to the Punjab and Calcutta Exhibitions, give an impression of great technical aptitude, which seems to find but little employment and scanty remuneration. It is a common place to say that there is in this country but little of the sub-division of labour, and none of the machinery, which make European products cheap; but even in India there are few examples of the union in one craftsman of so many trades as are practised by the Bhera cutlers. Long before the introduction of machinery the Sheffield cutlery trade was divided into many branches, and the man who forged a blade neither ground it, nor hafted it, nor fitted it with a sheath. At Gujráť and Siáľkot the smith forges caskets and other articles of the *kofgar's* trade in complete independence of the workman who damascenes them with silver and gold. But at Bhera, the same artizan fashions the blade on the anvil, grinds and polishes it, cuts the hilts or handles from stone or mother-o'-pearl, and makes a leather covered sheath for dagger or sword. The favourite hilt is in the common green slightly translucent stone largely used in the *bázár* for amulets, neck beads, &c., and may possibly be hard alabaster or marble. It has been erroneously called plasma, and it is still more erroneously spoken of as jade. To both these, it is much inferior in hardness, being easily scratched and cut with a steel knife. I suspect it is found in the Salt Range, not far from Bhera, where alabaster and other stones occur. But the men say it is found in large pieces at Gundamak, not far from Jeláľábád, that it costs two or three rupees per maund, and that there are troublesome and costly restrictions on obtaining it. It is brought down the Indus on rafts supported by inflated skins to Attock and thence by land to Bhera. This may be true, but I have only the word of a workman anxious to enhance the preciousness of his wares. The stone at all events has a better colour than true jade. Some of it is a delicate apple green, and other pieces are like verde antique marble. It is very useful in mosaic work. Besides knife handles and dagger hilts, it is fashioned at Bhera into caskets, paper-weights, cups, &c. The work is always liberally smeared with oil to remove the white marks left by cutting tools.

A favourite form for a dagger hilt ends in an animal's head. In the collections of arms in the possession of some of the Rájputána and Central India Chiefs, this design is seen beautifully wrought in crystal, and jewelled jade. The Bhera rendering is a very elementary attempt at a head.

Other stones used resemble serpentine and Parbeck marble, and are found in the neighbouring Salt Range. The cost of the stamp on the application for leave to quarry them is said to be all that is actually paid. The names given are vague, and seem to be applied on very slight grounds. *Sulaimān-i-patthar*, *Sang-i-Jarah*, *Pila patthar*, *Sang-i-marmar* are some of them, and they explain themselves. These are used for dinner knives and arms as well as for the ornamental articles made in stone.

A pretty herring-bone pattern of alternate zig-zags in black and mother-o'-pearl is frequently used for hilts. The mother-o'-pearl is imported from Bombay. The lapidary's tools in use differ in no respect from those in use at Agra, and indeed all the world over where machinery and diamond pointed drills are not used. A heavily loaded bow with wire string (or two for thin slices) is used for sawing, corundum, and water furnishing the iron wire with a cutting material, while the grinding and polishing wheels are the usual discs of corundum and lac, turned with the drill-bow for small work, or with the strap for heavy; but always with the to and fro non-continuous revolution of Indian wheels.

The best country iron, known at Bhera as *dāna*, is in fact a sort of steel; and when this is used, some of the blades of Bhera cutlery are of tolerably good quality, but it gets rarer yearly. Old files of English make are sought out and reforged into various forms. Old blades of stub and twist steel are often refashioned, and the *ab* or *jauhar* (the wavy markings in the texture of the blade) are still prized. These markings are rudely imitated for the benefit of English purchasers. The blade is covered with a mixture of lime and milk, forming a sort of etching ground on which, as it is drying off, the artificer's thumb is dabbed, with the effect of printing the concentric markings of the skin. *Kases* (sulphate of iron) is then applied as a mordant, and, when skilfully done, the effect is not unlike that of a real Damascus blade. No expert, however, could be for a moment deceived by this etching.

There are apparently more cutlers in Bhera than can find a living. I have seen a Bhera knife purchased from a quantity shown at a fair in *Hājipūtānā*, and it is probable that these goods, produced in seemingly unnecessary quantities, are, like many more Indian products, carried farther by hawkers and pedlars than most Europeans would imagine.

At Bhera *chaukats* or door and window frames are most elaborately carved in *doodar* wood. The rates at which these beautiful works are supplied to native purchasers are almost incredibly low, but as a European demand has arisen they have been raised. The work differs from that of Ghinot in that the projectiories are flatter, pilasters and other details being often merely indicated in relief instead of a half or quarter section being imposed. And the whole of the surface is completely covered with boldly outlined forms of foliage and geometric diaper made out for the most part with a V-section cut. There is something rude and almost barbaric in this direct and simple method of execution; but although there is no attempt at high finish, the general design and proportions are so good, and the decorative scheme is so full and complete, that the technical imperfection of the work as carving is scarcely noticed. A large door-way, completely covered with ornamental work, measuring ten feet high and of proportionate width, costs to a native purchaser about Rs. 25, which is but little more than the price paid for an ordinary plain door in other places. No use has been made by the Public Works Department of this beautiful and wonderfully cheap carpentry. The production of these doors and windows is not confined to Bhera; they are also made at Mīāni and perhaps at other places in the district.

Colonel Corbyn, when Deputy Commissioner of Shahpur, took a considerable interest in local manufactures, and especially in the lacquered

Chapter IV, B.
—
Occupations,
Industries and
Commerce.

Wool-carving.

Sāhiwāl lacquer.

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights,
and Measures and
Communications.

wood turnery of Sâhiwâl. This differs from that of other places in being more crude in colour and simpler in execution. A particularly unpleasant aniline mauve is used; but there is a better class of vases, plateaux and toys made in two colours, red and black, or red and yellow, or black with either. The scratched patterns are bolder and larger than elsewhere, and many toys, *eg.*, children's tea sets, are finished in transparent lac only, the colour and grain of the wood shewing through. Chess boards with chess men and a large variety of toys of forms that might puzzle an English child, are made at very cheap rates, but they do not seem to be as popularly known as they deserve to be. From the same town ivory toys of some neatness and skill in execution were sent to the Punjab Exhibition.

Combs are made at Nûrpur.

Jewelry.

There is nothing very noteworthy or distinctive in the jewelry or silversmiths work of the country side. From the chief places of the district, as well as from Tiwâna, specimens have been seen which shew an average of skill in work and design at least equal to that of most rural districts.

Leather.

Good embroidered shoes are made at Jabba and Anga.

Phulkâras.

It may be mentioned that the flower worked *chaddar* or *ohrni* of red or blue country woven cotton cloth ornamented with silk embroidery is worn in the district, but few are made for sale.

Course and nature
of trade.

There are no statistics available for the general trade of the district. Table No. XXV gives particulars of the river traffic that passes through the district. Apart from its connection with the Salt Mines, the trade of the district is insignificant. Opium and *sajji* are bought up by traders from Râwalpindi, Siâlkot, Kashmîr and the eastern districts, and salt finds its way in every direction. With these exceptions, all the surplus produce of the district, consisting of grain of all kinds, rice, cotton, wool, *ghê* and saltpetre, is sent down the river in country boats to Multân and Sakhar; and in exchange for these commodities, sugar of every description, rice, English piece-goods, the precious metals, iron, copper and zinc, are imported; the first two from Siâlkot, Gurdâspur and the tracts comprised in the Jalandhar and Ambâlla divisions, and the remainder by the river route from Karrâchi and Sakhar. In addition to the above, during the cold season, *majith* (madder), dried fruits, spices, gold coins, &c., are brought down by travelling merchants from Afghânistân, and are bartered chiefly for coarse cloth, the produce of the looms of Khushâb and Girot and in a less degree those of Bhera, Miâni, and the other towns of the district. Of late years the trade of the district has been more slack than formerly. The exports and imports of food-grain have already been noticed at page 67.

SECTION C.—PRICES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Prices, wages, rent-
rates, interest.

Table No. XXVI gives the retail bazaar prices of commodities for the last twenty years. The wages of labour are shown in Table No. XXVII, and rent-rates in Table No. XXI; but both sets of figures are probably of doubtful value.

The figures of Table No. XXXII give the average values of

Period.	Sale.	Mortgage.
1868-69 to 1875-76 ...	11-8	6-15
1875-76 to 1877-78 ...	13-12	8-13
1878-79 to 1881-82 ...	16-14	10-3

land in rupees per acre shown in the margin for sale and mortgage; but the quality of land varies so enormously, and the value returned is so often fictitious, that but little reliance can be placed upon the figures. The rates of interest prevailing in the district have already been noticed at page 57.

The local measure of grain varies much in different localities. The unit in all parts is the *topa*, or *chaubina*, a wooden measure of capacity; but the value given to this is fluctuating. In the Sháh-pur *tahsil* the *topa*=2 seers, and in parts of Bhera *tahsil* the same standard prevails. In Bár-Músa it holds $1\frac{1}{2}$, in Músa Chúha $1\frac{1}{8}$ in Miána $1\frac{1}{2}$, in Lakcháva $1\frac{1}{4}$ seers.

The following are the parts and multiples of the *topa* in use in the district:—

4 *paropis* = 1 *topa*.
 4 *topas* = 1 *pat*.
 5 *pails* = 1 maund.

The local *bighá* is exactly half an English acre.

The figures in the margin returned show the communications of the district as given in the quinquennial Table No. I of the Administration Report for 1878-79, while Table XLVI shows the distances from place to place as authoritatively fixed for the purpose of calculating travelling allowances. Table No. XIX shows the area taken up by Government for communications

Communications.	Miles
Navigable Rivers ...	100
Railways ...	82
Metalled roads ...	6
Unmetalled ...	830

in the district.

Station.	Distances.	REMARKS.
1. Kohlián	Ferry.
2. Bunga Surkhra ...	3	"
3. Sada Kamboh ...	14	"
4. Dhák ...	6	"
5. Cháchar ...	3	"
6. Gháhpur ...	1	"
7. Khunáb ...	3	"
8. Tankiwála ...	4	"
9. Hamoka ...	4	"
10. Shekhowál ...	2	"
11. Thattí Hargan ...	3	"
12. Langerwála ...	3	"
13. Tetri ...	3	"
14. Tawra ...	3	"
15. Majoka ...	5	"

way from Lála Músa to Bhera, runs through this district with stations at Haria Malikwál, Miáni, and Bhera.

In 1862 the only shelter of any kind to be found along the roads consisted of two miserable *sarais*, and the local committee of the district was officially condemned for its supineness in this matter. Since then systematic efforts have been made by it to free itself from the reproach of indifference to this important branch of its duties, and with such success that it may be confidently asserted that there are now few districts in the Punjab where better arrangements exist for

Chapter IV, C,
 Prices, Weights
 and Measures, and
 Communications.
 Prices, wages, rent-
 rates, interest.

Weights and
 measures.

Communications.

Rivers.

Railways.

Roads, rest-houses,
 and encamping
 grounds.

The Jhelum is navigable for country craft throughout its course within the district. The principal traffic on this river, as stated in Punjab Famine Report (1879), is shown in Table No. XXV. The mooring places and ferries and the distances between them are shown in the margin following the downward course of the river.

The salt branch of the Punjab Northern State Rail-

Chapter IV, C.
Prices, Weights,
and Measures, and
Communications.
Roads, rest-houses,
and encamping
grounds.

lessening the inconvenience of travel. On the two principal roads a commodious *sarai*, containing a well and ample supplies of food, will be found at every stage of ten miles, and on the Lahore road, where it crosses the *bar*, intermediate wells of fairly drinkable water at every five miles distance. The following table shows the principal roads of the district, together with the halting-places on them, and the conveniences for travellers to be found at each :—

Route.	Halting-places.	Distances in miles	REMARKS.
Shāhpur to Gujrāt	Shāhpur	Staging bungalow, <i>sarai</i> , and encamping-ground.
	Jhāwariān ...	10	First six miles metalled. <i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Chakāmdās ...	9	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Bhera ...	11	Ditto ditto and rest-house.
	Miāni ...	9	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Bādshāhpur ...	12	Ditto ditto
Lahore to Derañt	Lahore	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Mithānwāla ...	10	Ditto ditto.
	Mithalak ...	10	Ditto ditto.
	Dharama ...	11	Ditto ditto.
	Shāhpur ...	10	Ditto ditto.
	Khushāb ...	8	Ditto ditto.
	Hudāli ...	9	Ditto ditto.
	Mitha Tiwāna ...	9	Ditto ditto.
	Adli Sargal ...	14	Ditto ditto.
Bannū to Lahore	Vān Kalla	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Mitha Tiwāna	Ditto ditto.
Gujrānwāla to Pind Dādan Khān	Kuthila	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Miāni ...	12	Ditto ditto.
Shāhpur to Jhang	Nihang ...	10	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Sāhiwāl ...	11	Ditto ditto.
	Wādhi ...	11	Ditto ditto.
	Shāhpur ...	10	Ditto ditto and staging bungalow.
Rāmnaagar to Miāni.	Pukan	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Miāni	Ditto ditto.
Khushāb to Sakessar.	Nārewāla ...	10	<i>Sarai</i> and encamping-ground.
	Kathwāl ...	6	<i>Sarai</i> .
	Sodhi ...	18	Encamping-ground and rest-house.
	Uchali ...	12	Rest-house.
	Sakessar ...	20	<i>Sarai</i> and rest-house

Other important roads in the district are from Mitha Tiwāna to Nārpur, 24 miles, and Shāhpur to Kotmoman, 34 miles. An *ekki dāk* runs daily between Bherā and Shāhpur station, a distance of 31 miles.

Post Offices.

There are Imperial post offices at Shāhpur *sadr*, Bhera, Miāni, Chak Rāmdās, Jhāwariān, Sahiwāl, Kotmoman, Mitha Tiwāna, Khushāb, Shāhpur city, Nowshera, and Gīrot; and district post offices at Midh, Kund, Mithalak, Miāni, Gondal, and Nārpur, with savings' banks and money order offices at all these places, except at Gīrot.

Telegraph.

A line of telegraph runs along the whole length of the railway, with a telegraph office at each station; but the *sadr* station (Shāhpur) is not connected by wire with any telegraph office, Bhera at a distance of 30 miles being the nearest office.

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

SECTION A.—GENERAL.

The Sháhpur district is under the control of the Commissioner of Chapter V, A. Ráwalpindi, who is assisted by an Additional Commissioner who is stationed at Lahore. The ordinary head-quarters staff of the district consists of a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Extra Assistant Commissioner, and two Extra Assistant Commissioners. Each *tahsil* is in charge of a *tahsildár* assisted by a *naib*. General Administration.
Executive and Judicial.

Tahsil.	Kauungo and Naib.	Patwáris and Assistants
Bhera ...	2	48
Sháhpur ...	2	43
Khusháb ...	2	54
Total	6	145

The village revenue staff is shown in the margin. There are two Munsiffs in the district: one has jurisdiction within the Sháhpur and Khusháb *tahsils*, and the jurisdiction of the other includes *tahsil* Bhera. The head-quarters of the former is at Sháhpur Civil Station; but he holds his sittings every third month at Khusháb. The statistics of civil, criminal, and revenue litigation for the last five years are given in Table No. XXXIX.

There is no bench of Honorary Magistrates in this district.

The police force is controlled by the District Superintendent of Police. Criminal, Police and Gaols.

Class of Police.	Total Strength.	Distribution.	
		Standing guards.	Protection and detection.
District (Imperial)	340	53	296
Municipal ...	113	...	113
Total ...	463	53	409

Police. The strength of the force as given in Table No. I of the Police Report for 1881-82 is shown in the margin. In addition to this force 462 village watchmen are entertained and paid at the rate of Rs. 3 per mensem, which is partly levied

from occupants of houses and partly charged to *kamidna* cess in certain villages. The *thánds* or principal police jurisdictions and the *chaukis* or police out-posts are distributed as follows:—

Tahsil Bhera. *Thánds*: Bhera, Miána Gondal, Kotmoman, Midh, Miáni, Chak Rámdás. *Chaukis*: Bhágtanwála and Laksin.

Tahsil Khusháb. *Thánds*: Nowshera, Kund, Mitha Tiwána, Núrpur, and Khusháb.

Tahsil Sháhpur. *Thánds*: Sáhiwál, Mithalak Jháwarian, and Sháhpur. *Chauki*: Dharoma.

There is a cattle pound at each *thána* and also at Girod and Katha, all under the control of the Police Department. The district lies within the Ráwalpindi Police Circle under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police at Ráwalpindi.

Chapter V, A.
General Adminis-
tration.

Criminal, Police
and Gaols.

The district gaol at head-quarters contains accommodation for 321 prisoners. Table No. XL gives statistics of criminal trials, Table No. XLI of police inquiries, and Table No. XLII of convicts in gaol for the last five years. The only criminal tribes in the district are Sânsis; but they are not proclaimed under the Criminal Tribes Act. Their number is as shown in the margin.

Tribe.	Men	Women.	Children
Sânsis ...	141	121	172

Revenue, Taxation
and Registration.

The gross revenue collections of the district for the last 14 years, so far as they are made by the Financial Commissioner, are shown in Table No. XXVIII, while Tables Nos. XXIX, XXXV, and XXXIV and XXXIII give further details for Land Revenue, Ex-cise, License Tax, and Stamps, respectively. Table No. XXXIIIA shows the number and situation of Registration Offices. The central distilleries for the manufacture of country liquor are situated at Shâhpur civil station and Bhera. The administration of Customs and Salt Revenue is described in a separate paragraph.

Table No. XXXVI gives the income and expenditure from the District Funds, which are controlled by a committee consisting of 27 members, selected by the Deputy Commissioner from among the leading men of the various *tahsils* and of the members of the head-quarters staff, the Civil Surgeon, District Superintendent of Police, the *tahsildâr*, as *ex-officio* members, and the Deputy Commissioner as President. Table No. XLV gives statistics for municipal taxation, while the municipalities themselves are noted in Chapter VI. The income from provincial properties for the last five years is shown below:—

Sources of Income.	1878-79.	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.
Ferries without boat-bridges ...	8,221	8,760	6,955	8,166	7,800
Staging Bungalows ...	46	27	48	52	142
Encamping grounds ...	144	413	185	54	87
Cattle Pounds ...	4,128	4,860	3,938	3,638	3,613
Nazûl properties ...	903	904	770	1,048	1,000
Total ...	13,440	14,490	11,905	12,948	12,681

The ferries, bungalows, and encamping-grounds have already been noticed at pages 79-80, and the cattle pounds at page 81.

The principal *nazûl* property is the late Customs bungalow in the Shâhpur station. Figures for other Government estates are given in Table No. XVII, and they and their proceeds are noticed in the succeeding section of this chapter, in which the land revenue administration of the district is treated of.

Statistics of land
revenue.

Source of Revenue.	1880-81.	1881-82
Surplus warrant <i>talabâna</i> ...	391	728
<i>Aldikdwa</i> or proprietary dues	57
Fees ...	4	88
Other items of miscellaneous land revenue ...	336	3,442

Table No. XXXIX gives figures for the principal items and the totals of land revenue collections since 1868-69. The remaining items for 1880-81 and 1881-82 are shown in the margin.

Table No. XXXI gives details of balances, remissions, and agricultural advances for the last fourteen years; Table No. XXX shows the amount of assigned land revenue; while Table No. XIV gives the areas upon which the present land revenue of the district is assessed. Further details as to the basis, incidence, and working of the current Settlement will be found below in Section B of this Chapter.

The salt mines have already been described in Chapter I.

Table No. XXXVII gives figures for the Government and aided, high, middle, and primary schools of the district. There is an English middle school for boys at Bhera and vernacular middle schools at Miáni, Sáhiwál and Khusháb. Primary schools are at Sháhpur civil station, Sháhpur town, Jhávárián, Kot Bhái Khán, Sada Kamboh, Kandán, Sábowál, Faruka, Derájára and Mángowál in Sháhpur *tahsil*; at Chak Rámdás, Malikwál, Hariá, Bhábra, Hazra, Doda and Midh in Bhera *tahsil*; and at Rájar, Pail, Khabakki, Katha, Nowshera, Hadáli, Núrpur, Jamáli, Khai and Mithá Tiwána in Khusháb *tahsil*. There is also a lower primary school for girls at the town of Sháhpur. Table No. XIII gives statistics of education collected at the Census of 1881, and the general state of education has already been described at page 42.

There are also two girls' schools; one Hindi and the other Muhammadan. The pupils in the former school have made rapid progress.

The Bhera District School was founded on the 19th July, 1854. It is the Zilla School transferred from Sháhpur to the far more populous town of Bhera on 1st May, 1864. The school house is situated between the city police station and the charitable dispensary, and occupies the north side of the *bázár* running from the inner gate of Davies Ganj to the interior of the city. English, Persian, Urdu, mathematics, physical science, history, and geography are the subjects taught in the institution up to the standard of the Middle School examination. The school staff consists of a head master and 19 assistant teachers. The head master and five of his chief assistants are paid from Provincial and the other teachers from Local Funds.

The subjoined statement shows the expenditure, the number of pupils, and the results of examinations for each of the last five years:—

Yrs.	Number of pupils on rolls at the close of the year.			Expenditure.			Results of the Middle School examinations		REMARKS.
	Middle De- partment.	Primary De- partment.	Total.	Middle De- partment.	Primary De- partment.	Total.	Number of students in class.	Number of students passed.	
1879-80	151	276	426	Rs. 5,651	Rs. 1,003	Rs. 6,297	12	7	
1880-81	35	389	423	Rs. 1,945	Rs. 3,114	Rs. 4,669	NIL	NIL	
1881-82	51	413	467	Rs. 1,830	Rs. 2,960	Rs. 4,795	11	10	
1882-83	47	467	514	Rs. 1,855	Rs. 3,400	Rs. 5,255	9	8	
1883-84	85	400	485	Rs. 2,032	Rs. 3,841	Rs. 5,873	13	13	

Chapter V, A.
General Adminis-
tration.

Education.

Bhera District
School.

Chapter V, B.	Table No. XXXVIII gives separate figures for the last five years for each of the dispensaries of the district, which are under the general control of the Civil Surgeon, and in immediate charge of the Assistant Surgeon at Sháhpur Civil Station and of hospital assistants at the remaining stations.
Land and Revenue.	
Medical.	
Sháhpur dispensary.	The sadr dispensary at Sháhpur was founded in 1856, and is of the first class, with accommodation for 20 male and 10 female patients. It is situated in the Civil Lines. The staff consists of an Assistant Surgeon, Hospital Assistant, Compounder, Dresser, Apprentice, and menials.
Ecclesiastical.	There is a small Church known as St. Andrew's Church at Sháhpur, capable of seating 24 persons. No chaplain is posted there; but the chaplain at Jhelam visits the station four times a year to hold a service.
Head-quarters of the Departments.	The portion of the Punjab Northern State Railway which runs through the district is in charge of the Traffic Superintendent at Ráwalpindi. The head offices of this railway are at Lahore. The Salt Traffic road from Miáni to Pind Dádan Khán is under the Executive Engineer, Provincial Division, Ráwalpindi, who has also the charge of the public buildings in the district, and is himself subordinate to the Superintending Engineer, 1st Circle, Ráwalpindi. The administration of the salt revenue has been fully described in Chapter I, page 12. The Post Offices are controlled by the Superintendent of Post Offices at Dera Ismail Khán. The Forest Staff in <i>tahsil</i> Bhera is under the control of the Assistant Conservator of Forests, Gujranwála Division, and that in <i>tahsil</i> Khusháb is under the control of the Assistant Conservator of Forests, Jhelam Division.
	The Customs (Salt) Staff is under the control of the Assistant Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, at Khewra.

SECTION B.—LAND AND LAND REVENUE.

Revenue administration under the Sikhs in Jhelam.	Previous to the establishment of the Lahore residency, that portion of the Jach-Doáb in which the Sháhpur district is situated, used to be farmed out by the Sikh <i>darbár</i> to different <i>kardárs</i> of more or less note. Guláb Singh, subsequently the Máharájá of Kashmir, for some years held the lease of Bhera. Kharak Singh, afterwards for a short time Máharájá of the Punjab, used to have the direct charge of the Sáhiwál <i>tahsil</i> , and Diwán Sáwan Mal of Multan sometimes took the farm of the Kálowal <i>tahsil</i> . These magnates were succeeded in the years immediately preceding the Sutlej campaign by men of less note, who had smaller tracts of country entrusted to them. But both they and their predecessors, as a rule, collected their rents by <i>batai</i> (or division of the harvest when reaped and threshed), or by <i>kankut</i> (appraisement of the standing crops), or by under-leasing a few villages, here and there, for a certain cash payment to some person possessing a little local importance, who again made his own arrangements for collecting his rents according to one of the above described modes. As the principal lessee held his lease subject to renewal annually; of course any contracts entered into by him were only for a similar period.
Farmers collected their rents by <i>batai</i> or <i>kankut</i> .	

The result of these arrangements was, that the officers who first attempted to introduce the system by which the collection of the revenue was made in cash, had very little reliable data to guide them. It is true that the archives of the *darbār* could furnish them with the gross amount which used to be received into the Sikh treasury during a certain year for a certain tract of country; and so, again, the accounts rendered annually by the subordinate contractors seemed to show in detail the proportions in which the payments were to be credited to each village. But these accounts purported to show payments on account of revenue, and were no clue to the gross rental of each village; and it appeared from inquiry that the rent of the village was taken either by *batāi* or *kankūl*, the rate by which individuals paid varying in the same village from 50 to 25 per cent. of the gross outturn.

The grain thus collected was often made over by the sub-lessee, who had agreed to pay so much for the year's revenue of a village, to the *kārdār* at something under its market value. The *kārdār* again often received credit in the *darbār* treasury for the payment in cash of a certain sum on account of one or more villages, by complying with an order to pay certain troops stationed in the neighbourhood, their arrears of pay for a certain number of months. As these troops had been living on credit, the *kārdār* settled with them by giving so much in grain to the *banyās* to whom the troops were indebted for food, and so much to the troops in cash. Seeing that the value of grain is continually fluctuating, it is obvious that when the payments made in that commodity travelled round so large a circle, the figures, which in the Sikh record exhibited the revenue of a village in money, were not of much assistance to the officer who had eventually to assess the revenue.

In the Sikh time the *bār* jungle villages paid a lump assessment which was composed of a land tax, cattle tax and house tax. The inhabitants used also to pay another cess called *faroi*. The amount of this tax was very variable, and indeed its collection was accompanied with trouble. It was supposed to represent 25 per cent. of the value of the property annually stolen by the inhabitants of any particular village. However, this was an irregular source of income for the *kārdār*, and was not included in the official accounts; consequently it formed no part of the data on which the assessments of the Summary and Regular Settlements were fixed.

However, when the Residency was first established, no better data than these accounts of the Sikh *darbār* were procurable; and, as it was absolutely necessary that the land revenue demand should be fixed for the current year, English officers were deputed all over the country to assess the revenue of each village separately. The Government demand was to be fixed in cash, and each village was invited to enter into an engagement for a period of three years. The assessments were to be based on the Sikh returns, on which a reduction of 20 per cent. was to be allowed. Of course if particular circumstances seemed to require a large reduction, the English officers had the power to afford it. The term of this Settlement expired in the Shahpur district with the Sikh year Sambat 1907, corresponding with A.D. 1850. Mr. Lewis Bowring, an officer who produced a very

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Land and Land Revenue.

The Sikh *darbār* records uncertain guides.

Disposal of grain collections.

Peculiar system current in the *bār*.

First Summary Settlement, c. 1840.

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Land and Land
Revenue.

Working of first
Summary Settle-
ment, cis-Jhelam.

favourable impression on the people of Shāhpur, and whose name was constantly in their mouths for years after his connection with the district ceased, fixed the assessments of the Bhera and Sāhiwāl portions of the district. The Kālowāl portion was assessed by Mr. Cocks, who, owing to press of work, had to fix his assessments at Lahore.

The Government demand was paid in full for Sambats 1904 and 1905 (A. D. 1848 and 1849). The collections were still made from individuals in kind, but they were paid during the former year into the Sikh, and during the latter year into the English treasury in cash. In 1850 a few balances accrued, but still, owing to the high price of grain, and to other causes which have been fully explained in other Settlement reports bearing on the same period, the *zamīndārs* were able to pay the greater part of the Government demand during that year, and also during the succeeding year. But towards the close of 1851, a great cry of distress arose throughout the district, and as the period of the Settlement made in Sambat 1904 had expired with the year Sambat 1907 (A.D. 1850), it was considered absolutely necessary that a revision of the demand should be at once effected.

Revision of assess-
ments of the Kālowāl
tahsil.

As Major Birch, the Deputy Commissioner at the time, had no assistant, and the necessity was pressing, Mr. E. Thornton, the Commissioner, determined to revise the demand for the Kālowāl *tahsil*, where the distress was the greatest. He accordingly, in the course of his tour, went to the village of Māng in that *tahsil*, and reduced the Government demand from one lac to 75,000 rupees. This assessment was commenced and finished in three days, and was humanly speaking, the means of speedily restoring an almost ruined and deserted tract of country to a flourishing condition.

And of those of Bhe-
ra and Sāhiwāl.

Early in 1852, Mr. Ouseley was ordered to revise the Government demand in the Sāhiwāl and Bhera *tahsils*. His instructions were to make the Settlement for the years 1851-52, or until such time when the Regular Settlement demand should be determined; that as the year 1851 had expired, any increase in the Government demand was to be collected from 1852 only, whereas any remission that was considered necessary was to have retrospective effect. The Government demand throughout the district was by these operations reduced from Rs. 3,42,492 to Rs. 2,67,455; this demand was collected without difficulty until the Regular Settlement assessment was determined, and when that assessment was determined, it was found that so far from a reduction on the Summary Settlement demand being necessary, an increase on it could be taken.

Results of Summary
Settlement, cis-
Jhelam.

The results of the three Summary Settlements are shown in the following table:—

Number.	Tahsil.	Jama of 1st summary settlement.	Jama of 2nd summary settlement.	Jama of 3rd summary settlement.	De-crease.	REMARKS.
1	Bhera ...	1,25,164	1,14,041	1,07,579	17,585	The revenue of the Khushāb and Farukā talukas, transferred to Shāhpur from the districts of Leith and Jhang in the years 1851 and 1852, and added to the Sāhiwāl <i>tahsil</i> , have been excluded, so as not to disturb the comparison.
2	Sāhiwāl ...	1,18,750	99,813	86,139	22,212	
3	Kālowāl ...	63,978	75,617	63,739	36,240	
	Total	3,42,492	2,90,563	2,67,455	75,037	

The Mithá Tiwána, Núrpur and Sún *talúqás*, as before explained, formed part of the *jágír* of Hari Singh, Nalúá. After the death of this leader, the two former were transferred in farm to Malik Fattah Khán, Tiwána, and were held by him, with but few interruptions, till his death in 1848. At the same time, the Sún *talúqá* was for a year or two given in farm to Rájá Guláb Singh, who at this time held the contract for the greater part of the district, and afterwards transferred in *jágír* to Sardár Gurmukh Singh, Lámbá. The Khabakkí and Katha *talúqás* were for many years the *jágír* of Hari Singh, Mazbí, from whom they passed to Mahárájá Kharak Singh; the former in 1822 and the latter in 1825. On Kharak Singh's elevation to the throne they were given to Sardár Shamsher Singh, Sindhánwálá, as part of his *jágír*, and so remained till annexation. The *talúqás* of Ahmadábád and Núrpur Sethí went through many hands; among others, Rájá Guláb Singh held the contract of the former for ten years from 1833 to 1843, and from 1844 to 1846 it formed part of Rájá Hirá Singh's *jágír*, while the latter for nineteen years, *viz.*, from 1818 to 1837, constituted the *jágír* of Sirdár Rám Singh, Billí, a native of Bhágpur in the Mánjhá.

The management in all cases was identical; the *jágírdárs*, being foreigners, seldom resided on the spot, hence everything was left to the resident manager or *kárdár*, and as his tenure of office was often very precarious, he generally extorted as much from the *zamíndárs* as he could. The collections were made by that most iniquitous of *systems*, appraisalment of the standing crop, or "tip" as it used to be called, by which the heaviest share of the common burden was nearly always made to fall on the shoulders least fitted to bear it, because, forsooth, the owners were unable to bribe the *kárdár* or his underlings into making a favourable estimate of the probable outturn of their fields, as their richer brethren did. *Batái*, a far fairer mode of collection, was only resorted to in favour of individuals whom the *kárdár* wished to humour, or in respect of lands of which some portion of the state or *jágírdár's* share of the produce had been temporarily alienated as a concession to the leading members of the agricultural community.

The first Summary Settlement was made by Mr. L. Bowring, and, seeing what insufficient and unreliable data he had to work with, the rapidity with which the assessments had to be made, and how obviously it was the interest of the *jágírdárs*, whose income would be affected by the arrangements made, to mislead, it is rather a matter of surprise that the first Settlements worked so well, than that considerable inequalities in the assessments were subsequently discovered. Other causes also combined to render revision necessary before long; and this was accordingly effected in 1852 by Major C. Browne for the *talúqás* afterwards received from Jhelam; and in the following year, by Mr. David Simpson for those which then formed part of the Lejá district. The result of these revisions was a considerable reduction in the assessments of the hill *talúqás*, but more especially in regard to the *jamás* of

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Revenue.

The trans-Jhelam
tracts during Sikh
rule.

Sikh Revenue ad-
ministration, trans-
Jhelam.

First Summary Set-
tlement, trans-Jhe-
lam.

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Revenue.Second Summary
Settlement, trans-
Jhelam.

the villages lying along the north of the Sún valley. The assessment of the Mithá *talúqd* was also somewhat reduced, while that of Núrpur was raised by nearly thirty per cent.

This second Summary Settlement worked tolerably well; but still it was known that the assessment of the Salt Range villages was somewhat oppressive, and from time to time relief was given in the most glaring cases. This Settlement was ostensibly made for two years only, but soon after this term had expired, the mutinies broke out; and before the finances of the country had recovered themselves sufficiently to allow of measures entailing extraordinary expenditure being undertaken, the Leiah district was broken up, which led to further delay, and thus it was that no steps were taken for sometime to place the assessment and the rights of property on a sound basis. It must not however be omitted from mention that Mr. Parsons in 1860 revised the Government demand in the Núrpur *talúqd*; the result was a slight reduction; but a more important change was made in allowing the proprietary body in each village to engage separately for their own revenue, instead of the plan which had been in force up to that time, by which the Tiwána Maliks had alone been responsible for the payments of the whole *talúqd*.

Regular Settlement,
1854-1866.

In 1854 Regular Settlement operations were commenced in the Sháhpur district as then constituted (see page 24, Chapter II.) under Mr. Richard Temple, who was presently succeeded by Mr. Gore Ouseley. By 1860 Mr. Ouseley had completed the assessment of the Bhera, Kálowál and Sáhiwál *tahsils*; and he was presently succeeded by Colonel (then Capt.) Davies, who assessed the tracts received from Leiah and Jhelam (page 25) and completed the whole Settlement in 1866.

Soils and revenue
rates, cis-Jhelam.

The popular opinion divided the whole land of the district as regarded its agricultural capabilities, into three great classes, viz., *hitár* or the low lands liable to the inundation of the rivers; *utár*, or the high land in the *bár* jungle, where the water was from 60 to 90 feet from the surface; and *nakka*, or that strip of land situated between the very low and the very high land. So again in separate villages, the lands were classed as either *sailábá* land, subject to the inundations of the river, *cháhí* land, that dependent on wells for its irrigation, and *bárdni*, or land on which the crop was dependent on the fall of rain. The lands were entered in the assessment papers only under the heads of *sailábá*, *cháhí* and *bárdni*. The *cháhí* was divided into two classes—*cháhí sailábá* i.e. land irrigated by wells, but also having the advantage of being subject to inundation from the river; and *cháhí khalis*, or land irrigated *only* from wells. The tabular statement at the top of the next page shows the revenue rates adopted by Mr. Ouseley:—

In the *bár* Re. 1 was charged on *cháhí* land, and Re. 1 for every 20 acres of grazing land.

Results of Regular
Settlement, cis-
Jhelam.

The second table on the next page shows figures for the results of the Regular Settlement cis-Jhelam, in continuation of the information contained in the tabular statement on page 86.

Name of Tahsil.	Name of Circle.	RATE PER ACRE OR			
		Chhtri		Fak'ab.	Bairat
		Fak'ab.	Khhlu		
Bheri	Hikhar	2 8	1 12	1 12	...
	Nakhi	...	1 10
	Uda	...	1 12
Bairat (new village)	Hikhar	1st class 2 4	1 12	1 12	...
	Nakhi	2nd " 0	1 8	1 4	...
	Uda	...	1 10
Kadwai	Hikhar	1st class 2 4	1 12	1 8	...
	Nakhi	2nd " 0	1 8	1 4	...
	Uda	...	1 12

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Land and Land Revenue.
Soils and revenue rates, cis-Jhelam.

No.	Tahsil.	Area of Revenue Settlement.	Area of Regular Settlement.	Increase.	Decrease.	REMARKS.
1	Bheri	1,77,372	1,74,974	...	2,391	Balancing these last two columns gives an increase of 17, 334. The decrease was caused chiefly by the formation of estates, the decrease was due to reduction of jama in existing villages.
2	Bairat	94,170	1,02,112	8,942	...	
3	Kadwai	67,339	48,323	19,016	...	
Total		2,38,881	2,25,409	13,472	2,391	

Results of Regular Settlement, cis-Jhelam.

Col. Davies divided the trans-Jhelam portion of the district into the hill *mojar*, *danda*, *thal*, and river circles, the last consisting of only two or three river villages which had not been assessed by Mr. Onseley. The following table shows the revenue rates already been described in Chapter IV, pages 58—61. The classes represent the classification of villages made by him according to their quality :—

Soils and revenue rates, trans-Jhelam.

Assessment Circle	Description of Soils.	1st class.	2nd class.	3rd class.	4th class.
Hikhar circle	Hikhar	Rs. A. 2 0	Rs. A. 1 8	Rs. A. 1 0	Rs. A. 1 0
	Nakhi	1 8	1 4	1 0	0 12
	Kadwai	0 12	0 10	0 8	0 8
Nakhi circle	Nakhi	1 8	1 0	0 16	0 0
	Nakhi	1 0	0 12	0 10	0 0
	Bairat	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 0
Danda circle	Nakhi	1 4	1 4	0 0	0 0
	Nakhi	1 0	1 16	0 0	0 0
	Bairat	0 8	0 8	0 0	0 0
Thal circle	Thal	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
	Thal	0 4	0 4	0 4	4 0
	Thal	0 4	0 4	0 4	4 0
River circle	Chabi Fak'ab	2 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
	Fak'ab	1 8	0 0	0 0	0 0
	Fak'ab	1 0	Namul.	0 0	0 0

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Revenue.Basis of the assess-
ment.

In the *thal* a rate of Re. 1 was imposed upon every 50 acres of pasture.

Having estimated the gross produce of each kind of soil, Col. Davies thus describes the subsequent steps by which he arrived at his assessment:—

“The rate at which the produce was converted into money was the average of the rates which had prevailed during the last five years, (reliable data for a longer period not being forthcoming); but as, owing to the fact that the famine year had fallen within that period, the result was probably somewhat too high, I reduced it by a fourth; for instance, if the average price of wheat during the past five years was 40 seers, I adopted 50 seers as the rate for converting the produce of wheat-fields into money, and so on for each kind of produce. Having got the value of the whole produce by this means, I took from it the proprietor's share of the produce according to the rate of *barāi* prevailing in the village (generally half), and after deducting from this half the *chautidār's* pay, road and school funds, and ten per cent. for *mirāsī's* dues and other customary payments, I took from the balance or net produce one-third as the Government demand. According to the general rule I should have taken half, but in demanding the smaller proportion, reference was had to the fact that throughout the area undergoing assessment, the harvests were entirely dependent on rain. My object was to make liberal allowance for everything.”

Results of Regular
Settlement, trans-
Jhelam.

No	Circle	No of villages.	Jama of sum- mary settlement	Jama of Revised settlement.	Increase.	Decrease.
1	Hill ...	32	41,920	40,703	..	4,215
2	Muhir ...	12	28,883	28,200	..	339
3	Danda ...	13	21,676	21,770	94	..
4	Thal ...	23	19,827	9,630	..	897
5	Hydr ...	3	2,620	2,450	..	170
	Total ...	83	1,06,301	1,00,765	94	5,840

The general fiscal results of the revision of this portion of the assessment will be seen from the table given in the margin.

Reduction was nominal, except in the Hill circle, where as the statement before explained, the Summary Settlement *jamas* pressed very heavily in places, and the general character of the assessment in the *Sūn* valley was

decidedly oppressive; on the other hand the assessment in the *thal* and *danda* circles was a good deal raised. At first sight it would appear that there had been a considerable reduction in the *tirni* of the *thal*; but in reality the tax was raised, for thirty *rakhs* containing an area of 220,000 acres, had been marked off.

Fiscal results of the
Regular Settlement.

No.	Tahsil.	Summary Set- tlement jama	Revised Settle- ment jama.	Increase	Decrease.
1	Bherā ...	120,679	123,680	..	6,100
2	Shāhpur ...	109,316	110,817	1,702	..
3	Khushāb ...	149,143	141,006	..	7,237
	Total ...	369,237	376,512	1,702	13,427

General rule for
distribution of
revenue.

The figures in the margin show the general fiscal results of the Regular Settlement, following the divisions of the district as finally adjusted.

The tenures being as a rule *bhū-yāchāra*, the *jamas* are distributed primarily upon holdings, regard being had, wherever such distinctions exist, to the various qualities of soil: e.g., in the villages of the *hitār* the distribution is on land subject to inundation (*sailāb*) and that artificially irrigated (*chāki*). In the *nakla* on irrigated, and

Note.—The real decrease, after deducting the increase of Rs. 1,702, is Rs. 11,725 which falls at about 2 per cent. on the Summary Settlement jama; but this does not take into account the income from *raikhs* (about Rs. 23,000) which for the first time were created during this Settlement.

unirrigated (*béránti*). In the hills on *hail*, *mairá* and *rakkar*, &c. In *centindári* and purely *pattidári* villages, the revenue is of course paid in accordance with ancestral shares, but as explained before, the number of estates held on these tenures is very small. While, however, the general rule is as stated above, in some parts of the district peculiar modes of paying the revenue exist; these will now be described, and the causes that have led to their adoption.

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Past custom has had a large share in determining the mode of distributing the burden of taxation. In the *bár* during the Sikh rule a house tax* of two rupees used to be collected from all the residents of the village, proprietors and non-proprietors, independent of the *tirni* on cattle; and this custom has been kept up ever since, so that, of the *jama*, a portion which falls at about the old rate is charged on houses, another and larger share on cattle, and the remainder is distributed rateably over the irrigated and unirrigated cultivated area, as recorded in the Settlement papers. The two first sums are subject to annual *bách*, the last is fixed for the currency of the Settlement. The above rule, however, only obtains in the Bherá *tahsil*. The distribution in the *bár* villages of the Sháhpur *tahsil* is chiefly on wells, such having been the practice during the Sikh times in the Faruká and Derájára *talúqás*, to which these estates mainly belong. Here, and elsewhere, wherever the primary distribution is on wells, payments are made according to *shares* in the wells.

The rule in the *bár* of Bherá *tahsil*.

Plan adopted in
Sháhpur *bár*.

In the *thal* the revenue is distributed partly on land, and the remainder on cattle. The former, as in the *bár*, is a fixed sum distributed on recorded cultivation, irrigated and unirrigated, by far the greater part being of the latter class, which pays at an uniform rate of four annas an acre, the sum at which it was actually assessed. The quota charged on cattle, here also, is liable to re-allotment annually, camels for this purpose being rated at sixteen annas, buffaloes eight annas, cows four annas, and sheep and goats each one anna.

In the *thal*.

In the tract called the *dandá*, the mode of payment is, in the main, the same; but there is this peculiarity in the distribution of the quota charged on land, that the *whole area included in separate holdings* bears a share of the burden, the uncultivated portion being assessed at from a fourth to an eighth of the rate payable on the area actually under cultivation. The reason for this is that the site of cultivation is periodically changed, so as to allow long intervals of rest to the abandoned land. This arrangement further obviates the necessity of re-measurement and re distribution of assessment, should great changes take place hereafter, *relatively*, in the extent of land cultivated by the several members of the village communities. The absence of some such compensating element was much felt during the currency of the Summary Settlement, and in some villages led to serious inconvenience.

In the *danda*.

In the *muhár*, the whole of the burden falls on land. In the best villages, which enjoy the monopoly of the drainage from the Salt Range, and in which the distinctions in quality of soils are very strongly marked, the distribution is by soils. In the remainder,

In the *muhár*.

* Called *búha*, which is the Punjábí for "door."

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where the same differences do not exist, the revenue is divided uniformly over the area under tillage as measured at Settlement. At first it would appear as if this were scarcely fair to the owners of the inferior *rarhidār* land, but enquiry has shown, that where this rule of distribution has been adopted, the difference in quality of the inferior land has been made good to these, by the possession of waste land in larger quantities than that attached to the superior *nāldār* land; and, be it remembered, the waste land *here* is not charged with any portion of the revenue.

The rule in the Salt
Range

Throughout the Salt Range, the revenue is distributed by soils, and so great is the difference in the productive powers of land in the best villages, that the *samīndārs* have for this purpose carried the distinction of soils so far as to sub-divide the *hoil* and *mairā* lands each into two classes: In only a few of the very inferior estates has an uniform rate been adopted.

Current Settlement.

The settlement now current is sanctioned for a term of fifteen years from 1st April 1866. The result of the settlement was to assess the fixed land revenue of the district at the amount of Rs. 3,76,512, being a decrease of Rs. 1,17,525 or three per cent. on the preceding demand. The rates used for the purposes of assessment have been shown at page 89.

The incidence of the fixed demand per acre as it stood in 1878-79 was Rs. 0-12-8 on cultivated, Rs. 0-2-8 on culturable, and Rs. 0-2-8 on total area. The areas upon which the revenue is collected are shown in Table No. XIV, while Table No. XXIX shows the actual revenue for the last 14 years. The statistics given in the following tables throw some light upon the working of the settlement:—Table No. XXXI.—Balances, remissions, and *takāvi* advances. Table No. XXXII.—Sales and mortgages of land. Table Nos. XXXIII and XXXIII A.—Registration.

Revenue instal-
ments.

The revenue is paid in four instalments after the gathering in of the two harvests, that is, in the months of June and July for the spring, and December and February for the autumn harvest. The only exception is in the hills, where, owing to the *rabī* crops ripening a month later than in the plains, special sanction has been obtained to postpone the collections on account of this harvest till the 15th July and 15th August. The proportions, however, in which payments are made during the year vary to suit the circumstances, of each natural division. In the *thal* and *bār*, where the major part of the revenue is contributed by the owners of the cattle, collections are made in four equal instalments; in the Salt Range *hithār* and *nakka*, where the *rabī* is the principal crop, the division is three and two-fifths, respectively for the spring and autumn harvest; lastly, in the *muhār* and *dandā* the reverse of this is the rule.

Cesses.

The following are the cesses levied in addition to the land revenue demand:—Local rate cess, Rs. 8-5-4 per cent. road cess and education cess, one per cent. each. The rates are uniform throughout the district.

Assignments of land
revenue.

Table No. XXX shows the number of villages, parts of villages, and plots, and the area of land of which the revenue is assigned, the amount of that revenue, the period of assignment, and the number

of assignees for each *tahsil* as the figures stood in 1881-82. The amount alienated at the Regular Settlement was Rs. 46,366, or rather more than twelve per cent. on the total revenue. Of this nearly Rs. 12,000 were rewards granted for life on account of service rendered during the Mutiny, many of which have since lapsed. The table at pages 94-5 gives details of the assignments as they stood in 1866. With reference to the question of *ināms* to leading men, Col. Davies writes as follows :—

"The enquiries into *māfi* cases were not conducted in a very liberal spirit, and the general result therefore was that about two-thirds of the claims were rejected. Unfortunately, these included many cases technically known as *ināms*, and the *zamīndārs*, perceiving that the policy of the Government was adverse to the recognition of such claims, from that time ceased to urge them, at least on paper. One general principle appears to have guided the decision in this class of cases *viz.*, that the receipt of *lambarḍāri* allowance was compensation in full for all claims of this nature, thus reducing the great and small all alike to one level. This was an undoubted mistake, and no attempt was made to remedy it till quite lately ; for Mr. Ouseley, as would appear from his writings, was averse to the restoration of these grants, or rather was doubtful of our ability thereby to create a class that should be of real assistance in the administration. Not sharing these doubts myself, and strongly impressed with the impolicy, if not positive injustice, of debarring the leading *zamīndārs* of this district from sharing in the benefits conferred on their compeers in the surrounding districts, I brought the matter to the notice of the proper authorities, and obtained the sanction of Government to send up proposals to rectify the initial error. In accordance therewith, carefully considered recommendations have been submitted for the restoration of *ināms* varying in amount from fifty to two hundred and fifty rupees per annum, to fifty-five of the principal land-holders and men of influence in the district. The amount of revenue proposed to be alienated in this manner is not five thousand rupees, or somewhat less than one and a half per cent. of the annual income from land; a small investment that I venture to predict will yield large returns."

Table No. XVII shows the area and income of Government estates; while Table No. XIX shows the area of land acquired by Government for public purposes. The forests have already been noticed at pages 68—71.

The apparent loss of revenue resulting from the operations of the Regular Settlement was more than counterbalanced by the income derived from the Government *rakhs*, or preserves, which were separately demarcated and appropriated by the Settlement Officers. Prior to annexation no recognized village boundaries existed in the *bār* and *thal* jungles. Throughout this expanse, villages inhabited by various Muhammadan tribes, whose chief wealth consisted in cattle, were to be found very often at distances of 10 to 12 miles apart. Owing partly to the scarcity of well water, and to the dearth of rain which is a characteristic of the Shahpur climate, and to the presence of trees and shrubs on which camels feed, and to there being during some months of the year (if the fall of rain has been at all favourable) an abundance of grass,—the people carried on very little agriculture, but kept up large flocks and herds.

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Assignments of land revenue.

Government lands, forests, &c.

The *bār* and *thal*.

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Detailed Statement of Jagirs of the Shikhpur District.

Number.	Name of Jagirdars.	Name of Jagir villages.	Amount of jagir.	Total of each.	Grand Total.	Period for which granted.	REMARKS.
1	Malik Fatch Sher Khan, Tiwana	Kand	2,193	2,093	4,113	In perpetuity.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 1031, of 21st August 1840.
	Ditto	Kirpaké	473	—			
	Ditto	Uti Rai	900	—			
	Ditto	Kodh	223	—			
	Ditto	Lakku	60	—			
	Ditto	Sheikhu	60	—	1,411	For life.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 1356, of 31st January 1860.
	Ditto	Mangar	63	—			
	Ditto	Mahomed	—	—			
	Ditto	Shih	116	—			
	Ditto	Shih	—	—			
2	Malik Sher Muhammad Khan, Tiwana	Jabbi	5,000	—	6,949	In perpetuity.	Same authority as in the case of Malik Fatch Sher Khan's jagir.
	Ditto	Jaura	68	—			
	Ditto	Sirwal	61	—			
	Ditto	Kotla	173	—			
	Ditto	Ranca Sigwal	50	—			
	Ditto	Tetri	550	—	2,020	For life.	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 3316, of 31st May 1859.
	Ditto	Chandi	81	—			
	Ditto	Kheifi	376	—			
	Ditto	Shethowal	313	—			
	Ditto	Shohra	370	—			
3	Malik Alim Sher Khan, Tiwana	Fatchpur	700	693	910	Ditto	Same authority as in Fatch Sher Khan's case.
	Ditto	Gogochakhi	216	—			
	Ditto	Joyá	300	—			
	Ditto	Hamote	935	—			
	Ditto	Thetti Yarn	813	—			
4	Malik Sher Baidar Khan, Tiwana	Jidh Mangar	511	—	1,235	In perpetuity.	Same authority as in Malik Fatch Sher Khan's case.
	Ditto	Kalia	303	—			
	Ditto	Mugitwala	720	—			
	Ditto	Nán	1,125	—			
	Ditto	Nowahra	1,100	—			
5	Malik Ahmad Khan, Tiwahas	Yeghi	720	—	4,100	Ditto	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's No. 1390, of 10th August 1840.
	Ditto	Sadul	231	—			
	Ditto	Hara	230	—			
	Ditto	Bunga, Ichral	376	—			
	Ditto	Jhunge Saloi	400	—			
6	Mubarak Khan, Boloch	Yeghi	720	—	3,019	Ditto	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's letter No. 2975 of 13th September 1859.
	Ditto	Sadul	231	—			
	Ditto	Hara	230	—			
	Ditto	Bunga, Ichral	376	—			
	Ditto	Jhunge Saloi	400	—			
7	Sardar Attar Singh	Yeghi	720	—	1,230	For life.	Do. do. in Secretary's letter No. 350, of 31st January 1860.
	Ditto	Sadul	231	—			
	Ditto	Hara	230	—			
	Ditto	Bunga, Ichral	376	—			
	Ditto	Jhunge Saloi	400	—			
8	Malik Sahib Khan, Tiwana	Yeghi	720	—	3,019	Ditto	Conferred by Supreme Government in its Secretary's letter No. 2975 of 13th September 1859.
	Ditto	Sadul	231	—			
	Ditto	Hara	230	—			
	Ditto	Bunga, Ichral	376	—			
	Ditto	Jhunge Saloi	400	—			
9	Sayad Sulaim Ahmad Shah	Yeghi	720	—	1,230	For life.	Do. do. in Secretary's letter No. 295, of 14th January 1853.
	Ditto	Sadul	231	—			
	Ditto	Hara	230	—			
	Ditto	Bunga, Ichral	376	—			
	Ditto	Jhunge Saloi	400	—			
10	Sultan Muhammad Awán	Yeghi	720	—	1,230	For life.	Do. do. in Secretary's letter No. 127, of 11th March 1868.
	Ditto	Sadul	231	—			
	Ditto	Hara	230	—			
	Ditto	Bunga, Ichral	376	—			
	Ditto	Jhunge Saloi	400	—			
Grand Total			21,873	—	21,873		

Misjs of the Shahpur district as they stood in 1863.

Name of Tahsil.	In perpetuity.			For the maintenance of institutions.			For life.			Total.			Hindo.			Musulman.			Total.		
	Cases.	Area in acres.	Jama.	Cases.	Area in acres.	Jama.	Cases.	Area in acres.	Jama.	Cases.	Area in acres.	Jama.	Cases.	Area in acres.	Jama.	Cases.	Area in acres.	Jama.	Cases.	Area in acres.	Jama.
Bhara	17	320	370	23	2,700	2,615	179	14,153	7,537	221	17,238	10,812	32	2,917	2,910	13	159	105	45	3,086	3,005
Shahpur	24	9,135	5,101	4	216	153	57	3,436	2,539	85	13,910	8,163	14	6,147	5,330	8	186	101	22	6,327	2,331
Khuahab	10	4,037	2,193	13	1,156	392	57	1,608	1,608	83	6,709	4,170	11	910	157	2	290	311	13	1,200	463
Total	50	13,812	8,319	45	4,162	3,170	293	10,213	11,682	389	37,253	23,171	57	10,013	5,237	23	600	577	80	10,022	5,804

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Disputes relating to right to use of water more common than claims to possession of land.

Clever expedients resorted to by the people to obtain large grazing grounds.

Change since annexation.

As the villages were few and far apart, disputes about grazing ground were of rare occurrence. There was land enough for all. But sometimes a dispute took place about the right of watering cattle at a certain pond or natural tank. Two villages situated a dozen miles apart, would perhaps in a season of drought, both assert a claim to water their cattle at a tank equidistant between their villages. In the endeavour to enforce their fancied rights, a fight would ensue, and the victors would probably build a few grass huts for themselves and their cattle, in which they would reside for a couple of months and then desert the place for some better locality. The defeated party of one year often turned the tables on their adversaries in the year after, and took possession of the disputed water. Might was right, and beyond actual possession, there was no test by which to judge as to what lands ought to be considered as within the boundaries of any particular village.

When Regular Settlement operations commenced, the country having been annexed some five years, and the people having had such preparatory instruction as two summary settlements could afford, the *zamindars*, knowing our respect for prescriptive rights, determined to divide the jungle among themselves. They accordingly established little out-posts, with a few men and a few head of cattle in each of them, at distances of several miles round the parent village, and proposed to encircle them all in one ring-fence which was to represent their village boundary. Had this arrangement been permitted, the result would have been, that the whole jungle, which may hereafter become valuable property to the State, would have been appropriated by a few thousand cattle grazers, whose annual contribution of revenue does not in the aggregate exceed 35,000 rupees.* To show how preposterous were some of the claims raised, Mr. Ouseley mentions that the present area of Mauzah Lak, after converting large tracts originally included by the villagers in their boundary into Government *rakhs*, still exceeds 4,000 acres.

Before the commencement of our rule, owing to the lawlessness of the times, however far parties took their cattle from the villages during the day, they brought them back to the protection of village for the night. After annexation people became bolder. Small parties of men who would formerly have been afraid to have separated themselves so far from the main village, during the next few years, sunk a *kacha* well, and built a hut or two, at some spot favourable for pasturage, five or ten miles from their village. More than this, as the people began to learn the weight which is attached by us to possession, they took to ploughing up and sowing small patches of ground not equal in size to a quarter of an acre, at distances of from three to ten miles from their villages, the object being to try and make good their title to all the intermediate grazing land between these patches and their village sites. Thus Mr. Ouseley writes (1859): "Last year, when at Mitha Tiwāna, I had to visit a spot which was the subject of dispute between the *zamindars* of Mitha and Ukhli Mohla. I found that the disputed boundary was nearly ten miles from one village and seven miles from the other.

* The actual sum is Rs. 33,472.

The dispute itself extended over five or six miles of desert, and before I left the spot the *zamíndárs* of Roda in the Leiah district came up, and declared that the land which I had been looking at belonged to their village, which was six or seven miles away. During my ride I was taken by one party or other, to see the marks of their possession, which were little patches of ground of the size of a quarter of an acre or so, scattered over distances of a mile or more from each other, in which somebody had sown a few seeds of *bájra* which had never ripened owing to want of rain. The existence of these spots appeared to be only known to a few men on either side; and from the recriminations which used to follow on their being brought to notice, I believe they were ploughed up and the seed cast in secretly at night, and then neglected altogether, as the object was not to attract the attention of the opposite party to the progress that was being made in securing ground, until the settlement *ahilkars* should commence operations."

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Change since annexation.

After much deliberation it was arranged that the demarcation of boundaries in the *bar*, should be carried out on the same principle as had been adopted in *Gújránwála*. The villages were called on to state how many head of cattle they possessed, and they were allowed an area of waste land calculated upon the number of their cattle, at four acres a head in the *bar* and ten acres in the *thal*, five sheep or goats being counted as equal to an ox. In the *Mitha Tiwána thal* Mr. Ouseley marked out boundaries arbitrarily, without reference to the numbers of cattle, or rather, to any exact scale based upon that number. The quantity of land that each village was entitled to being once settled, every effort was made to draw out boundaries with a due regard to existing possession, and where possession did not exist to prevent it, the village area was made of as compact a shape as was feasible. But so averse were the villagers to this arrangement, that they threw every obstacle in the way of the persons employed for the demarcation of their boundaries. The area remaining after this demarcation was constituted Government *rakhs*.

The principle for defining boundaries determined on.

It might have been supposed that the plan adopted would have led the people to exaggerate their possessions, in order to obtain large pasture grounds, but such was not the case. The people of this country are everywhere suspicious, and here they seem to have thought that a trap was being laid to extract from them the real numbers of their cattle, in order that the information might be afterwards made use of to raise the assessment; they therefore if anything, returned the number of cattle as too small. But the arithmetical standard was liberal in itself and was not too strictly applied, every care being taken that the area allotted to each village should be more than amply sufficient for its greatest possible requirements.

The present system of *trinni*, by which grazing dues are realised from animals pasturing in Government *rakhs*, is as follows:—

Grazing dues in Government *rakhs*.

Most of the *rakhs* used for grazing purposes are leased out every year, and the contractors make their own arrangements for collec-

Chapter V, B.	tion of <i>tirni</i> according to the sanctioned scale of rates specified in their leases which is:—				
Land and Land Revenue.	For Camels	1 Re.	per head.	
Grazing dues in Government <i>rakhs</i> .	" Buffaloes	12 Annas	do.	
	" Cows and Bullocks	8 "	do.	
	" Sheep and goats	1 Anna	do.	

The system in force regarding *tirni* in those few *rakhs* which are managed directly and not leased out is as follows:—All cattle of *zamindars* and others, who are desirous of grazing their animals in Government lands, are enumerated and entered in a register by the *patwari* of the circle and then allowed to enter upon the *rakh*. The *patwari* grants a "permit" or *parcha* to the owner of the cattle which insures their admission to the *rakh*. The rate of *tirni* in the *rakhs* under direct management is the same as for those on lease. The income derived by the Government from these *rakhs* for the past five years is as follows:—

1878-79	...	Rs. 84,129	1880-81	...	Rs. 75,586
1879-80	...	86,481	1881-82	...	" 33,441
	1882-83	...		Rs. 32,269	

Government canals. There are now altogether six canals in the Sháhpur district belonging to Government. The arcas irrigated by them have already been given in Chapter I, page 9. The present state of these canals will be best shown by a short description of each.

Station Canal. The *Station Canal* takes out of the main stream of the river Jhelam near a village called Dudhí, about 16 miles to the north-west from Sháhpur. The average width of the canal bed for some distance from the head is 23 feet, and the longitude slope 1 in 5,700; so that the discharge with four feet of water is 165 cubic feet per second. About a mile from the river the canal joins the district road near Jhaurián village, and running parallel at a distance of 20 or 30 feet, crosses the former some distance further on. From here the canal keeps close to the line of road through high and low ground till it reaches Sháhpur. About five miles from the station a small branch eight feet wide and two feet deep takes off to feed the new Sahiwál or Station Extension Canal. Below this point the canal narrows down to a 10-feet bed, and ends altogether at the station of Sháhpur. The primary object of this canal appears to have been to water the trees along the district road and in the station, and to irrigate the station itself. Its total length is about 17 miles, and as the land passed through is high, water for irrigation on the way can usually only be taken off by damming up the canal. This of course prevents proper distribution of the water, and causes a large deposit of silt whenever the *bands* are made. The silt clearance of this as of all the other canals is done by guess. Some lengths in different parts of the canal too are cleared out yearly, whereas others are left for two or even three years without clearance. The rate for flow irrigation is Rs. 2-8-0 per acre, and is the same for all crops. For Persian-wheels (*ihallars*) the charge is Rs. 16 for the season, and they irrigate about thirty acres. As before noted the canal is classed as Imperial.

Station Canal Extension or New Sahiwál Canal.

The main head of this canal is in the river about two miles below the head of the Station Canal. Its bed was 4-75 feet above the level of

the water of the Jhelam in December 1883; but a considerable part of this, probably two or three feet, is silt, which is cleared out before the river rises. The channel is 14 feet wide, longitudinal slope 1 in 4,500, and depth of water 2·5, with a full supply giving a discharge of 48·39 cubic feet per second. The position of the head is very favourable at present, but the canal itself is liable to be breached by a drainage or spill from the river, which crosses it about two miles down. About three miles down, the channel joins and runs alongside a native canal (Sarfaráz Khán's) for three or four miles, the distance between the two varying from 10 feet to 200 feet, and the land cut off being of course wasted. Although no irrigation takes place from this canal till within a few miles of Sháhpur, it runs through cultivated land the whole distance. Near the village of Kot Bhai Khán, the drainage from a low-lying plot of ground sometimes flooded by a breach in the Station Canal is taken in, and after being joined by the feeder from the latter, the canal bed widens to an average of 16 or 18 feet. The width, however, is very irregular. Here the bed slope is 1 in 4,700; so that with 18 feet bed and 2·5 feet of water in the channel, the discharge would be 62·18 cubic feet per second. Three years ago this canal was dug right up to the town of Sahiwál, but the supply being insufficient, the water has only reached half way from Sháhpur to that place up to the present, the last ten miles of the canal having been left dry each year. This fact is due to want of proper arrangements for distribution and also partly to bad alignment. The canal keeps close to the road, which runs nearly straight from Sháhpur to Sahiwál, only at one point curving to avoid a hill. This canal is also Imperial, and the water rates are the same as on the Station Canal. It is 40 miles long.

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Station Canal Extension, or New Sahiwál Canal.

The Sahiwál Canal takes out of the Main River about seven miles above the town of Sahiwál. The position of the head at present is an extremely favourable one, being protected from scour or liability to silt. There is much less silt met with in and on the banks of this canal than in any of the other Government canals in the district. The capacity of the canal at its head is 38 cubic feet per second; bed width being 12 feet long, slope 1 in 5,000, and depth of water in full supply 2·5 feet. Down to Sahiwál the canal is everywhere in cutting of a uniform depth of five to six feet, and although it has been running for 15 years, there is, except at the head, very little trace of silt on the banks. The irrigation for a considerable distance is nearly all carried on by the aid of Persian-wheels (*ghallars*); towards and beyond Sahiwál, however, the water flows on to the land through water-courses. The canal bifurcates at the Sahiwál and Girod Road about three miles from the former place, the smaller branch crossing the road and the other turning parallel to it crossing near the town. At Sahiwál the canal appears to form a receptacle for the drainage of the town and of the country to the north-west. It then runs south for about 12 miles, and eventually, if there is water enough, rejoins the river. The water rates in force are Rs. 1·8 per acre for flow irrigation

Old Sahiwál Canal.

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Macnabb's Canal.

and Rs. 8 per annum for each *jhallar*. The income, area irrigated, &c., is included with that of the Station Canal. The canal is 17 miles long.

This canal was formerly a small cut made in a natural depression of the country where the river occasionally overflowed. After being neglected for some years, it was made over by Captain Johnstone, Deputy Commissioner, to Sultán Ahmad Sháh, of Sháhpur, who cleared it; but as he subsequently allowed it to silt up, it was in 1877-78 taken in hand by Colonel Corbyn who enlarged and improved it. This canal takes out of the main river about three miles from Sháhpur, and is altogether 14 miles long, the last five miles of which is only a drainage line, and has never been properly excavated. Its alignment appears to be the worst possible for an irrigation canal. It can in most places only irrigate the land immediately adjoining its banks by overflowing them and everything else in the neighbourhood. This appears to be the only way in which most of the villages benefit by the canal at all. Taking the depth of water at the head of this canal in full supply as 2·5 feet, the discharge would be 35 cubic feet per second, irrigating 200 acres in 1879-80. The bed width is 12 feet and longitudinal slope 1 in 6,000.

Corbynwah or Kh-
sháb Canal.

This canal takes out of a secondary branch on the right bank of the river, just within the borders of the Jhelam district. The large branch from which that in which the head is situated takes off, used formerly to keep open and running all the year round. Lately, however, it has to a great extent silted up, and a channel through two to two-and-a-half miles of the river bed has to be cut every year in order to get a supply of water down to the canal head. A *bund*, moreover, to force the water into the channel, has been made completely across the river branch, and this, although temporarily augmenting the supply, tends eventually to cause its total stoppage. The bed was excavated 24 feet wide; it is now 36 feet. The bed width varies very much in the first two miles, but taking it at the original amount, namely 24 feet, the longitudinal slope 1 in 3,200 and the depth of water three feet, the capacity is 141 cubic feet per second. (The longitudinal slope is that of the first two miles.) As in the new Sahiwal Canal, only a little more than half the whole length works at all. Down to the village of Rajar, twelve miles from the head, the water runs freely and floods the country; the land to which the canal has been dug is higher than the water in the river at the canal head, and drainage water is said to have been conveyed from the tail upwards. The canal was made by Captain Corbyn, Deputy Commissioner, in 1876, and has been in operation since 1877-78. The cost is said to have been about Rs. 18,000. The table in the margin gives the area irrigated, &c., for each year since the opening.

The water rate is Re. 1 per acre and

		Area irrigated in acres.	Water Rate.	Cost of main- tenance.
		Rs	Rs	Rs
1877-78	..	810	810	340
1878-79	...	615	647	880
1879-80	...	8,033	2,210	1,504

the length of the canal 20 miles.

The Rāniwāh Canal has also the disadvantage of taking out of a branch of the river and not out of the main stream. The river has since cut into this branch, and the second or lower head of the Rāniwāh is now in the main stream of the river. This branch leaves the main channel just below a village called Chak Nizām, some four or five miles above Miāni. At Chak Nizām the Jhelam channel is narrow and very well defined with high banks, which the villagers say have been undisturbed for many years. The earth composing them is much firmer than that usually found, and the river is said to show no tendency to do damage at this point when in flood. About five hundred feet down stream, where the head of the river branch is situated, the main channel suddenly widens, and there is therefore a great tendency for silt to be deposited in its entrance. When the river is very high a good supply will undoubtedly pass in, but the amount of silt in the mouth will render its duration very limited. The head of the Miāni branch of the Rāniwāh is about three miles down stream, and that of the Main Canal two miles further on. The respective capacities of the two branches down to their junction three miles above Bhera are as follows:—

Miāni Branch.—Bed 20 feet; longitudinal slope 1 in 4,500; depth of water three feet, discharge 98 cubic feet per second.

Main Branch.—Bed 32 feet; slopes and depth of water as above; discharge 162 cubic feet.

The channel runs along the line of the old Rāniwāh and below the junction of the two branches everywhere commands the country on each side of it. Below the junction the channel widens out at once to a 40-feet bed, giving, with a depth of three feet, a discharge of 205 cubic feet per second. On the whole, this canal is very efficient, and there is only a prospective difficulty about keeping its head well open.

The rates for flow

	Area irrigated in acres.	Water Rates.	Cost of main- tenance.
		Rs.	Rs.
1875-76 ...	2,748	7,219	7,218
1876-77 ...	6,802	17,432	5,255
1877-78 ...	4,378	11,589	8,000
1878-79 ...	10,314	25,311	6,392
1879-80 ...	3,685	9,305	6,284
1880-81 ...	5,399	13,778	7,205
1881-82 ...	11,517	29,220	9,884
1882-83 ...	18,241	46,412	2,429

irrigation are Re. 1-8 for grass and Rs. 2-8 for all other crops. *Thallars* are charged Rs. 16 each per annum. The area irrigated, amount of water rates, and cost of maintenance for the last eight years are given in the margin. The original cost of the canal was 21,500, so that the net average gain per annum for the last five years is 35·07 per cent, even although the average rate per acre has in the meantime decreased. The length of the canal is 23½ miles.

The Shāhpur canals may be divided into two kinds: (1) those which work well at present; and (2) those which do not. Among the former are, the Station, Sāhiwāl, and Rāniwāh Canals. The latter are, the new Sahiwāl, the Macnabb, and the Corbynwāh or Khushāb Canal. The Rāniwāh Canal alone among the first three appears likely to decrease in efficiency. The river branch from which it rises is gradually silting up, so that the cost of maintaining the head open will probably increase.

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Land and Land
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General Remarks.

The reasons for the partial failure of the last three are various. The Station Canal Extension or new Sahiwal Canal gets an insufficient supply, and also appears to have too little slope of bed. The dimensions of the channel also are not properly proportioned to the supply at various points. The Macnabb Canal has little command of the land through which it passes, so that irrigation from it can only take place where it is least wanted. Half the Corbyn Canal alignment is evidently wrong. Its head is also in a very unfortunate position. In the channels themselves the chief defects are: (1) being dug with vertical sides; (2) throwing the spoil as close to the edge as it will lie; (3) line of masonry works being different to line of canal; (4) The silt is heaped on to the original spoil, and thus half the silt is yearly deposited from the sides of the channel and only half brought in by the water.

Financial adminis-
tration.

The financial result of the working of these canals justifies their efficient maintenance, and the opportunity of utilizing profitably the summer supply of water in the Jhelam renders their extension advisable. It will, however, be seen that the land near the river is far too much cut up by canals already, and therefore any new scheme, if not entirely an independent one, should at least aim at opening up a new tract to irrigation. The establishment employed on each canal is given in the following list:—

Station Canal and New Extension.		Corbyn Canal.	
2 Jamádárs @ Rs. 10 and Rs. 8 per month.		1 Jamádár @ Rs. 15	per month.
4 Chaprásís @ Rs. 5	"	4 Chaprásís "	5
Sáhirál Canal.		Ráimadh Canal.	
1 Jamádár @ Rs. 8	"	1 Munshi @ Rs. 20	"
2 Chaprásís " " 5	"	1 Jamádár " 15	"
Macnabb Canal.			
2 Chaprásís @ Rs. 5	"	4 Chaprásís " 5	"

Thus the total establishment at present employed on these canals is as follows:—

1 Overseer	...	@ Rs. 50 per mensem
1 Do.	...	" 20 "
1 Deroqah	...	" 30 "
1 Muharrir	...	" 20 "
1 Do.	...	" 15 "
1 Jamádár	...	" 15 "
1 Do	...	" 10 "
21 Chaprásís @ Rs. 5 per mensem	...	" 105 "
Total Rs.		265 per mensem.

The canals are worked by the *tahsildárs* through a *dérogah* and patrols. The clearance is carried out under the directions of the *tahsil* officials by petty contract or task work, supervised by the canal patrols and *jamádárs*.

The canals work from about the middle of April to the end of August. The irrigation from the Government (*sarkári*) canals is measured by the village *patwáris* under orders of the *tahsildárs* and the rate of irrigation is different on various canals as follows:—

The Station Canal and New Sahiwal Canal.

The rate for flow irrigation is Rs. 2-8 per acre for all crops. For each Persian-wheel (*jhallár*) the charge is Rs. 16 for the season, and it irrigates about 30 acres.

<i>Old Sahnedi Canal.</i>		
For flow irrigation	...	Rs. 1 8 0 per acre.
For each <i>jhallār</i>	...	" 8 0 0 for the season.
<i>Macnabb's Canal.</i>		
For flow irrigation	...	Rs. 1 8 0 per acre.
For each <i>jhallār</i>	...	" 8 0 0 for the season.
<i>Corbynrah or Khushāb Canal.</i>		
The water rate is Rs. 1 per acre.		
<i>Rānirāh.</i>		
For flow irrigation	...	Rs. 1 8 0 for grass.
Do.	...	" 2 8 0 for all other crops.
For each <i>jhallār</i>	...	" 16 0 0 each for the season.

The following figures show the working of the canals for the past six years. The total cost of construction may be stated approximately as Rs. 40,750.

Shahpur Inundation Canals.

Years	Length of Inundation	AREA IRRIGATED.			Income. Occupier's rate.	Expenditure during last six years.
		Kharif.	Rabi.	Total.		
1877-78	49	4,610	979	5,589	11,978	4,001
1878-79	49	7,060	2,120	9,180	16,543	8,301
1879-80	84	1,860	2,631	4,491	11,491	9,289
1880-81	84	5,706	3,429	9,135	7,897	9,847
1881-82	84	7,134	4,345	11,523	23,003	9,655
1882-83	84	7,826	4,805	12,631	15,219	9,630

The following table gives the number and names of the private canals in the Shahpur district, with their average income and expenditure, and the average areas watered by them, during the period of five years ending with the year 1882-83 :—

Private canals.

Private Canals—Income, cost, and area of irrigation.

No.	Name of Canals	Average Income.	Average Expendi- ture.	Average area irrigated
1	Naugiana	180	123	136
2	Jebān Khān Wālā	463	860	353
3	Hakim Khān and Fattah Khān Wālā	4,700	3,330	2,100
4	M. Umar Hayāt and Pir Haidar Shāh Wālā	2,472	1,615	1,825
5	Amir Chand Wālā	2,397	1,280	659
6	Malhdamen Wālā	437	190	701
7	Mekhan Din Wālā	51	135	69
8	Hakmat Khān Wālā	8	133	38
9	M. Sher Mohamed Khān Wālā	2,308	2,063	2,637
10	M. Umar Hayāt Khān Wālā	67,820	21,217	10,892
11	M. Khuda Bakhsh Wālā	6,741	6,328	3,355
12	Mekhan and N. Alā Muhammad Khān Wālā	3,304	4,524	1,815
13	Sarfarāz Khān Wālā	8,315	2,697	2,704
14	Chūl or Jehān Khān Wālā	6,113	6,127	2,466
15	Kandān Wālā	1,606	101	463
16	Nathū Wālā	3,025	55	1,043
17	Jhamtān Wālā	772	42	226
18	Mabulān Wālā	313	425	295
	Total	1,09,516	51,216	31,031

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

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CHAPTER VI.

TOWNS, MUNICIPALITIES, AND CANTONMENTS.

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipalities, and Cantonments.
General statistics of towns.

At the Census of 1881, all places possessing more than 5,000

Tahsil.	Town.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Shāhpur ...	Shāhiwāl ...	8,880	4,316	4,564
...	Shāhpur ...	7,762	4,367	3,395
Khushāb ...	Khushāb ...	6,949	4,470	4,519
...	Gfrot ...	2,778	1,430	1,346
Bhera ...	Bhera ...	16,165	7,625	7,540
...	Mīāni ...	8,069	4,480	3,589

inhabitants, all municipalities, and all headquarters of districts and military posts were classed as towns. Under this rule the places shown in the margin were returned as the towns of the district.

The distribution by religion of the population of these towns and the number of houses in each are shown in Table No. XLIII, while further particulars will be found in the Census Report in Table XIX and its Appendix and Table XX. The remainder of this chapter consists of a detailed description of each town, with a brief notice of its history, the increase and decrease of its population, its commerce, manufactures, municipal government, institutions and public buildings, and statistics of births and deaths, trade and manufactures, wherever figures are available.

Town of Shāhiwāl.

The town of Shāhiwāl lies in north latitude 31° 58' and east longitude 72° 22' and contains a population of 8,880 souls. It was formerly the head-quarters of a fiscal sub-division; it is one of the chief commercial towns of the district. It is not well built, and is completely surrounded by a *kacha* wall with six gates, of which the Lāhori to the east and the Kashmīri to the north are the principal. The town is badly situated on a raised piece of ground, around which the surface drainage of the country for many miles round collects. It is said that Shāhiwāl was founded by Gul Bahlak, one of the ancestors of the Biloch Chiefs of this place, and was so named after "Sai" of the Jhammat caste, who was the manager of the property. The municipality of Shāhiwāl was first constituted in 1867. It is a municipality of the 3rd class. The committee consists of 11 members, with the Deputy Commissioner as its President. Table No. XLV shows the income of the municipality for the last few years. Shāhiwāl carries on a brisk trade with Multān and Sakhar in cotton, grain, and *ghī*, and its *banya* traders also carry on a large agricultural banking business, and are gradually but surely acquiring the land in the neighbourhood. It is also the centre of the *barilla* (*sajji*) trade for the surrounding *bār* tract.

The only manufactures for which Shāhiwāl is noted are hardware and turnery in ivory and wood and lacquered work. A more detailed notice of some of the industries of the town will be found in Mr. Kipling's note given at pages 75 to 78.

The public buildings are a school, a dispensary, a *sarai* with rooms for European and native travellers, a town-hall, and a *thana*.

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Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.

Town of Sahiwal.

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town	{ 1869 1881	2,000 6,580	4,863 4,516	4,039 4,501
Municipal limits	{ 1869 1875 1881	2,000 2,614 6,990

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881 is shown in the margin.

In 1855 the population was 9,437, the subsequent decrease being due to the transfer of the *tahsil* headquarters. The constitution

of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Sháhpur is a small town of 5,424 inhabitants, at present at a distance of about two miles from the river Jhelum. It was formerly on the very bank of the river, which has of late been receding in the direction of Khusháb. Sháhpur with the adjoining villages Nathú-wálá, Kotlá and Jalálpur was founded by a colony of Saiyads who still form the proprietary body. One Sháh Shams was their common ancestor, and his tomb may still be seen near Sháhpur. The original tomb was to the north of the town, and was carried away by the river, when the coffin is said to have been removed to its present site, east of the town. He is now worshipped as a saint, and a large fair is annually held in his honor between 18th and 25th Chet (the end of March and beginning of April). A large number of people come from very long distances to worship this saint at his shrine, which is shaded by a grove of trees. At the last fair, held in the beginning of April 1884, it is estimated that 20,000 people were collected. A cattle fair was held in connection with this fair, and Rs. 500 were awarded in prizes. This town lies on the road from Lahore to Dera Ismail Khán and has some trade in cloth. It is three miles from the Civil station, and five from Khusháb. Though now removed from the river by a distance of two miles, in high floods the water still touches the walls. The road to Khusháb turns off at a right angle immediately in front of a picturesque gate, which leads into the only *bázár* of which the town can boast. The other gate, much smaller and ill built, leads to the river towards the north-west. The town has a school and a dispensary. In the western corner may be seen the low *kacha* walls of what was once a fort of the Saiyads, the site of which they still occupy; while outside the town and further east of the shrine of Sháh Shams, about one mile from the fort of the Saiyads, are the ruins of an old Sikh fort.

Sháhpur town.

The town is a Municipality of the third class. The Municipal income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV.

The civil station of Sháhpur lies three miles to the east of the town on the road from Lahore to Dera Ismail Khán, and has a population of 2,328 souls. It is about in the centre of the district, where the *bér* begins to change into the fertile low-land strip of country stretching along the bank of the river. It is at present 30 miles from the railway. It has a small *bázár* neatly laid out, with fairly wide streets. The roads of the station are wide and well shaded by

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Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.
Shāhpur town.

trees, and are watered in hot weather from the inundation canal, which runs through the station. Picturesque glimpses of the Salt Range close the view to the west; good crops of grain and grass are raised in the lands attached to the station, chiefly by the aid of canal irrigation. The station has a large hospital, a school, two tanks and three public gardens. The annual horse fair is held here.

The district court-house, the treasury and the *tahsil* are all substantial buildings of the usual type. There is also a police office, a Jail, and Police Lines with parade grounds. There is a sessions-house and a staging bungalow, and a commodious *sarai* was built

for the public benefit by the late Malik Shāhib Khān, Tiwāna, C.S.I. The church is in a pretty garden in the centre of the station.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 and 1881 is shown in the

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons	Males.	Females.
Whole town ... {	1868	6,514	3,694	2,820
	1881	7,752	4,367	3,385
Municipal limits {	1868	3,694
	1881	4,367

margin.

Town or Suburb.	POPULATION.	
	1868.	1881.
Shāhpur town ...	4,743	5,424
Civil Lines ...	1,771	2,323

The table shown in the margin gives the population of suburbs.

The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in the district report on the Census of 1881 regarding the increase of population observable in the civil lines: "This increase is only of an accidental nature, the majority of

the people enumerated there being of a fluctuating description, composed largely of persons attending the courts, and other temporary in-comers. This is illustrated by the fact that while the proportion of males in every 100 persons is 51 in other towns, it is 17 in the civil station." The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Town of Khushāb,

The town of Khushāb lies in north latitude $32^{\circ} 17' 30''$ and east longitude $72^{\circ} 24' 30''$, and contains a population of 8,989 souls. It is situated on the right bank of the Jhelam on the Lahore and Derajāt road, about eight miles from the civil station. Seen from the opposite bank of the river the town is picturesque. The town being quite on the edge of the river, it has several times been washed away by the stream. Year by year the river has encroached on the banks, so that a portion of the inhabitants are in turn driven out of their houses and obliged to build on the further side of the river. The town is partly surrounded by a *kacha* wall with four gates, of which Lāhori to the east and Kashmiri to the north are the principal. There are no data for giving, with any degree of exactness, the year of foundation of Khushāb. It is said by local tradition to have been built in A.D. 1503. But it must have existed long before this, and is probably one of the oldest towns in

this part of the Punjab, as it was a flourishing place in the time of Bábar, and is frequently mentioned by him in his memoirs. It is favourably situated on the right bank of the Jhelam, about eight miles from the civil station. Indeed, from the manner in which it is mentioned, it is clear that the old town must have existed when Bábar's ancestor, Tamerlane, invaded Hindustán in A.D. 1398. Very little, however, of the old town remains: for the last fifty years the river has been gradually cutting away its right bank at this spot, and with it have disappeared the gardens of the good Ahmadyár Khán, the fort built by Jáfár Khán, Biloch, and nine-tenths of the older houses. In Colonel Davies' time a new town was laid out which, with its *bazár* thirty feet wide and more than half-a-mile in length, and its open streets, promises to surpass the former one. The Nawáb, Ahmadyár Khán, mentioned above, was Governor of Khusháb in Muhammad Sháh's time, and his tomb, about a mile to the south-west of the new town, is still a place of pilgrimage.

The municipality of Khusháb was first constituted in 1867. It is a municipality of the 3rd class. It consists of 11 members with the Deputy Commissioner as President, the *tahsildár* the Vice-President, and the Hospital Assistant as *ex-officio* members. Table No. XLV shows the income of the municipality for the last few years.

Khusháb carries on a large trade with Multán, Sakhar, Afghánistán, and the Deraját, sending down cotton, wool, and *ghí* to the two former and country cloth to the latter, receiving in exchange English piece-goods, spices, iron, copper, &c., from Multán and Sakhar, dried fruits, madder, &c., from Afghánistán, and sugar and *gur* from Amritsar and the Jalandhar Doáb. It is the great mart for the grain of the Salt Range, and large numbers of cattle are employed in taking salt eastwards, and bringing back rice, sugar, &c. The principal manufacture is that of coarse cloth and cotton scarfs, *lungis*, there being some 600 weaving establishments in the town. The manufacture of art pottery has been commenced. A more detailed notice of some of the industries of the town will be found in Mr. Kipling's note given at pages 75 to 78.

The public buildings are a *tahsíl*, a *thána*, a school, a dispensary,

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons	Males.	Females
Whole town ... {	1873 1881	8,500 8,900	4,351 4,470	4,149 4,430
Municipal limits {	1873 1876 1881	8,500 8,344 8,900

a *sarai* with rooms for travellers, and town-hall. At Khusháb we have the largest ferry in the district, as from here roads branch to Dera Ismail Khán, Miánwáli, Bannu and Ta-

lagang through the Salt Range. An English rowing boat is used for the *dák*. The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881 is shown in the margin.

The population at the Census of 1855 was 7,261. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881.

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Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.
Khusháb town.

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.

Giroṭ Town.

Giroṭ is a small town, the population comprising 2,776 inhabitants, situated on the right bank of the Jhelam. The town itself is an unpretentious collection of native houses without a wall or any building of importance. It has a school, a police *chauki*, a dispensary, a municipal committee-house and a rest-house. The Municipal Committee consists of nine members appointed by the Deputy Commissioner. Its income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV. The original town of Giroṭ was so named by a merchant of the Gorīa tribe, who founded it during the Choghatta rule, about 425 years ago. Subsequently, about 904 Hijri, one Malik Bijār, of the Biloch tribe, founded a village near it, naming it Tibbi; but this latter was afterwards destroyed by Ahmad Shāh, Ruler of Kābul, and the descendants of Malik Bijār then founded the present town, calling it Giroṭ after the original name.

The sites of the old villages of Giroṭ and Tibbi are still included

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town ...	{ 1868 1881	2,790 2,776	1,431 1,430	1,365 1,346
Municipal limits	{ 1868 1881	2,790 2,776

in the limits of the present town. The chief trade is in cloth manufactured by weavers there. This cloth is greatly prized in Afghānistān and Central Asia, where the trade mark is notorious. About Rs. 1,50,000 worth of cloth is exported annually.

The population as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 and 1881 is shown in the margin.

The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Town of Bhera,
Description.

The town of Bhera lies in north latitude $32^{\circ} 22'$ and east longitude $72^{\circ} 57'$ and contains a population of 15,165 souls. It lies on the left bank of the Jhelam, 30 miles east of Shāhpur. It is the head-quarters of a fiscal sub-division, and is the largest and most imposing town and the most thriving commercial centre of the district. The town is surrounded by a wall, partly *kacha* and partly *pakka* with eight gates, of which the Lāhorī Gate to the east and the Thānwāla to the north are the principal. It is the best looking town in the district, being built of brick throughout. There are some ancient buildings with wonderful wood-carving. There are also some gardens outside the town, among which Thānwāla garden, and one in which the tomb of Miran Said Mahamadi is built, are specially worthy of notice. It has a *sarai*, detached *tahsil* and *thāna*, a dispensary, a town-hall, and a district school.

The early history of the town of Bhera is discussed at some length by General Cunningham in his "Ancient Geography of India," pp. 155 to 159, and Archaeological Survey Report, Vol. XIV, pp. 35 to 40. The original town stood on the right bank of the river, and in former days must have been a place of considerable note, for Bābar, in his autobiography, when speaking of his designs on Hindustān, talks of the countries of Bhera, Khushāb, &c., and again in describing Hindustān itself, he defines the limits of the

empire as extending from Bhera to Behár.* Some idea of its size may also be gained from the fact that it paid so large a sum as two lakhs of rupees to purchase its safety, when the troops under Bábar, disappointed of expected plunder in Bajaur, arrived before it in A.D. 1519. Soon after this, says tradition, the adjoining hill tribes descended and destroyed the city. The ruins of the old town still remain, and are known by the name of Jobnáthnaggar. It is identified by General Cunningham as the capital of Sophites, or Sopheites, the contemporary of Alexander the Great.† The same author speaks of it as the refuge, and for some time the capital, of the Bráhman kings of Kábul, expelled about the end of the 10th century by the Muhammadans.

The new town of Bhera was founded in A.D. 1540, during the reign of Sher Sháh, near a spot where a holy man calling himself Pir Káya-náth had for some time been established, and where his descendants are still residing round the tomb of their spiritual father. The place appears rapidly to have attained to its former size and importance, as it is one of the few places mentioned by name in the description of the Lahore *súba* given in the *Ain-Akbari*, from which we also learn that it was the centre of a *mahal* which paid a revenue of nearly five lakhs of rupees, and was one of the few spots in the whole empire where money was coined. After being plundered and laid waste by Núr-ud-dín, as mentioned before, the town was repopulated by the Chiefs of the Bhangimisl, to whose share it fell in the division of the territory acquired by the Sikhs. Its appearance has been greatly improved under British rule.

The municipality of Bhera was first constituted in 1867. It is a municipality of the 3rd class. The Committee consists of 13 members with the Deputy Commissioner its President, the *tahsildár* Vice-President, and the Hospital Assistant and the Head-Master of the school as *ex-officio* members. The members are selected by the Deputy Commissioner. Table No. XLV shows the income of the municipality for the last few years.

Bhera is a place of considerable trade, but inferior in this respect to both Pind Dádan Khán and Khusháb. A large colony of Khojás and Piráchas, Muhammadan converts from Hinduism, are settled here, and carry on a traffic with Kábul and the countries beyond it. Cotton was transported towards Sind in large quantities during the continuance of the American War; but the trade has now somewhat declined. *Ghi* is also sometimes sent down the Jhelam, the trade in this article being chiefly in the hands of Khojás. Rice, *gár* and sugar are imported from the Jalandhar Doáb; country cloth is exported to Kábul, Multán, Derjât, and Sakhar. European cotton goods are brought from Amritsar and Karáchi. Coarse felts and hand *pankhuds* are exported in different directions. The town is also famous for ironsmiths and stone-cutters, as well as wood-carvers; an excellent felt and soap are manufactured, the former being exported in large quantities. A moro

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Town of Bhera.
Description.

* Erskine's Baber, p. 255 and 310.

† Archaeological Report, 1863-64, p. 42.

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Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.
Town of Bhera.
Description.

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town ...	1868	14,514	7,448	7,066
	1881	16,165	7,626	7,539
Municipal limits	1868	14,514
	1875	14,710
	1881	16,165

detailed notice of some of the industries of the town will be found in Mr. Kipling's note given at pages 75 to 78. The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881, is shown in the margin.

In 1855 the population was returned at the Census of that year as 13,973.

The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881. The annual birth and death rates per mille of population since 1868 are given below, the basis of calculation being in every case the figures of the most recent Census :—

Year.	BIRTH RATES.			DEATH RATES.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1868	19	20	18
1869	30	30	29
1870 ...	35	36	35	40	43	37
1871 ...	37	40	34	37	40	39
1872 ...	34	18	16	50	40	60
1873 ...	29	16	15	43	45	40
1874 ...	69	30	29	35	35	35
1875 ...	60	27	23	33	31	31
1876 ...	62	26	26	31	31	31
1877 ...	65	29	26	31	33	30
1878 ...	62	27	26	63	62	65
1879 ...	41	20	21	33	34	33
1880 ...	63	27	25	35	34	33
1881 ...	68	29	29	31	30	33
Average	47	25	24	39	39	38

The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Town of Miáni.

The town of Miáni lies in north latitude 32° 31' 48" and east longitude 73° 7' 30", and contains a population of 8,069 souls. The town is situated on the left bank of the Jhelum, opposite Pind Dádan Khán, and is a 2nd class police station. The town is an ill-built town of narrow lanes and *bazárs*, the upper-storeys of the houses and shops almost touching each other. It is not surrounded by any wall. From time immemorial Miáni has been an important mart for the salt from the mines on the opposite side of the river. The original town was called Shamshābād. This was swept away by the river, and a town on the present site was built under the auspices of Asaf Khán, father-in-law of the Emperor Sháh Jehán, by two Hindus, Madho Dás and Shib Rám. Like Bhera, it grew and prospered till the decline of the Mughal monarchy, and, like Bhera, it was plundered and destroyed by Núr-ud-din, General of Ahmad Sháh, in A.D. 1754, and the inhabitants were dispersed in the neighbouring villages. In A.D. 1787, Máha Singh, father of Ranjit Singh, induced a number of the descendants of the old residents and others to rebuild the town, and re-opened the salt mart; but it appears never to have entirely recovered Núr-ud-din's

visitation, for the descendants of the families which then abandoned the place and took refuge in the adjoining villages are still to be found in the latter.

The municipality was first constituted in 1867. It is a municipality of the 3rd class. The committee consists of eleven members appointed and selected by the Deputy Commissioner. The income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV. The prosperity of the town depended mainly on the salt trade, which was carried on here on a large scale, for almost all the salt of the Mayo mines destined for down-country markets passed through it, the town being always known as Lún (salt) Miáni; but its golden days have vanished, the salt depot having been established at Lalá Musá. Four miles from Miáni is the small village of Chak Miáni. It was

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town ...	{ 1864 1881	{ 4,437 4,123	{ 3,023 2,840	{ 3,202 3,500
Municipal limits	{ 1864 1875 1881	{ 4,437 6,124 6,003	{	{

a salt mart when salt was conveyed across the river from Kheura by a wire tramway. The public buildings of Miáni are a police bungalow, a town-hall, a school, a sarai, with rooms for European and native travellers. The population, as ascer-

tained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881, is shown in the margin. Its population at the Census of 1855 was 6,005. The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in the District Report on the Census of 1881 regarding the increase of population: "The increase in Miáni has wholly taken place within a little more than the last year, and is due to the opening of the Salt Branch Railway, which ends at the spot." The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Chapter VI.
Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.
Town of Miáni.

STATISTICAL TABLES

PREPARED BY THE

GAZETTEER

OF THE

SHAMPUK DISTRICT.

— ♦ ♦ ♦ —

(INDEX ON REVERSE)

"PRINTED" BY THE

STATISTICAL TABLES.

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Table No. IIIA, showing RAINFALL at head-quarters.

1	2	3	1	2	3
MONTHS.	ANNUAL AVERAGES.		MONTHS.	ANNUAL AVERAGES.	
	No. of rainy days in each month—1867 to 1876.	Rainfall in tenths of an inch in each month—1867 to 1881.		No. of rainy days in each month—1867 to 1876.	Rainfall in tenths of an inch in each month—1867 to 1881.
January ..	1	4	September ..	2	16
February ..	2	12	October ..	1	3
March ..	2	9	November	4
April ..	1	6	December ..	1	6
May ..	2	8	1st October to 1st January ..	2	11
June ..	2	17	1st January to 1st April ..	6	21
July ..	4	27	1st April to 1st October ..	15	100
August ..	4	32	Whole year ..	21	141

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XXIV of the Revenue Report, and from page 34 of the Famine Report.

Table No. IIIB, showing RAINFALL at Tahsil Stations.

1	2	3	4	5
TAHSIL STATIONS.	AVERAGE RAIN IN TENTHS OF AN INCH, FROM 1873-74 to 1877-78.			
	1st October to 1st January.	1st January to 1st April.	1st April to 1st October.	Whole year.
Khushab ..	7	2½	12½	16½
Bhora ..	8	20	16½	18½

NOTE.—These figures are taken from pages 36, 37 of the Famine Report.

Table No. V, showing the DISTRIBUTION of POPULATION.

1	2	3	4	5
	District.	Tahsil Shahpur.	Tahsil Khushab.	Tahsil Bhora.
Total square miles	4,611	1,032	2,478	1,161
Cultivated square miles	820	284	282	254
Culturable square miles	3,646	737	1,416	853
Square miles under crops (average 1877 to 1881) ..	527	147	207	178
Total population	421,508	122,631	171,616	167,230
Urban population	51,641	16,632	11,775	23,211
Rural population	369,867	106,001	119,850	144,038
Total population per square mile	90	119	69	142
Rural population per square mile	79	109	48	122
Towns & villages.				
Over 10,000 souls	1	1
5,000 to 10,000	4	2	1	1
3,000 to 5,000	0	0	3	..
2,000 to 3,000	20	4	0	7
1,000 to 2,000	71	13	23	30
500 to 1,000	141	40	36	62
Under 500	408	168	62	178
Total	657	230	139	279
Occupied houses .. { Towns	8,671	3,154	1,705	4,003
.. { Villages	63,213	19,720	21,641	21,952
Unoccupied houses .. { Towns	4,684	1,666	781	2,225
.. { Villages	15,065	5,068	5,425	8,972
Resident families .. { Towns	18,101	4,510	3,005	5,443
.. { Villages	85,401	23,913	20,503	21,083

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I and XVIII of the Census of 1881, except the cultivated, culturable, and crop areas, which are taken from Tables Nos. I and XLIV of the Administration Report.

Table No. VI, showing MIGRATION.

Districts.	Immigrants.	Emigrants.	MALF FOR 1,000 OF BOTH SEXES.		DISTRIBUTION OF IMMIGRANTS BY TANSILS.		
			Immigrants.	Emigrants.	Shahpur.	Khushab.	Bhera.
Gujranwala	3,167	2,248	525	478	186	89	2,882
Rawalpindi	350	2,074	591	768	82	95	173
Jhelum	5,184	8,118	450	525	600	1,303	3,412
Gujrat	6,517	4,137	487	400	284	114	6,120
Jhang	6,904	5,549	540	469	2,607	605	3,604
Dera Jemali Khan ..	661	8,798	617	618	65	475	21
Binnu	493	2,731	616	652	90	306	86

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XI of the Census Report of 1881.

Table No. VII, showing RELIGION and SEX.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	DISTRICT.			TANZILS.			Villages.
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Shahpur.	Khushab.	Bhera.	
Persons	421,508	122,677	181,015	167,280	869,877
Males	221,676	..	61,545	67,282	89,609	194,989
Females	199,832	55,019	64,333	77,451	174,889
Hindus	60,026	30,370	29,656	14,801	14,070	24,732	38,660
Sikhs	4,702	2,605	2,097	1,431	2,006	3,215	3,771
Jains	2	5	4	9	1
Buddhists
Zoroastrians
Muslimans	537,742	188,714	169,028	101,891	111,620	141,282	327,436
Christians	29	22	7	17	10	2	9
Others and unspecified
European & Eurasian Christians ..	20	20	0	15	10	1	..
Bunnies	551,107	185,767	165,330	66,661	112,138	140,378	221,640
Shikhs	6,205	3,210	3,095	2,937	2,444	901	5,488
Wahabites	233	107	126	213	233

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. III, IIIA, IIIB of the Census of 1881.

Table No. VIII, showing LANGUAGES.

Language.	District.	DISTRIBUTION BY TANSILS.		
		Shahpur.	Khushab.	Bhera.
Hindustani	703	336	147	225
Panjabi	420,258	122,090	131,239	166,929
Pashtu	495	190	221	81
Kashmiri	16	..	9	12
Nepalese	1	1
Persian	1	1
English	27	15	10	2

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Census Report for 1881.

Table No. IX, showing MAJOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Serial No. in Census Table No. VIII.	Caste or tribe.	TOTAL NUMBERS.			MALES, BY RELIGION.				Proportion per mille of population.
		Persons.	Males.	Females.	Hindu.	Sikh.	Jain.	Musliman	
	Total population	421,198	221,676	199,522	80,330	2,605	5	189,714	1,000
18	Bloch	8,515	4,824	4,341	4,534	21
6	Pathan	8,076	1,865	1,211	1,865	7
1	Jat	31,508	18,768	12,910	654	300	..	17,524	82
2	Rajput	82,200	43,751	38,551	113	31	..	43,585	181
12	Arora	48,485	24,513	21,037	21,808	116
53	Khokhar	10,295	5,372	4,841	5,372	21
7	Arjun	8,574	4,672	4,002	4,672	20
37	Shikha	7,491	3,872	3,617	3,872	18
4	Brahman	8,945	1,255	1,050	1,255	6
24	Sayad	6,462	2,910	2,501	2,940	12	..	8	13
21	Nai	8,625	4,437	4,188	4,437	20
25	Misal	7,641	3,961	3,514	27	3,560	18
16	Khatri	8,944	4,312	4,002	1	4,341	20
10	Arora	15,018	7,029	7,036	7,510	400	..	18	26
4	Chuhra	35,017	17,644	17,373	15,820	1,012	..	112	81
19	Machhi	28,297	18,082	14,215	840	62	..	14,070	67
9	Jadhwa	15,911	7,945	7,961	1	7,944	30
23	Machhi	21,473	11,817	10,655	11,817	63
22	Lehr	11,150	6,848	5,304	6,848	26
11	Tarkhan	5,074	2,716	2,358	2,746	12
13	Kuttahar	10,270	5,407	4,803	4	1	..	5,402	24
22	Dhola	11,760	6,220	5,549	6,220	25
23	Tell	5,721	2,911	2,713	4	2,907	13
23	Qawab	2,112	1,112	1,020	1,182	5
30	Sunar	5,203	2,657	2,515	2,637	12
		8,597	1,911	1,705	1,208	15	..	558	9

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. VIII of the Census of 1891.

Table No. IXA, showing MINOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1	2	3	4	5
Serial No. in Census Table No. VIII.	Caste or tribe.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
8	Gujar
27	Ahir
25	Paqir, miscellaneous and unspecified	880	564	322
42	Mallah
44	Khajth
48	Pharal
69	Bhatiya
70	Ulama
80	Bazigar

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. VIII of the Census of 1891.

Table No. XII, showing MONTHLY DEATHS from FEVER.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MONTH	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	Total
January	355	408	640	182	384	2,627
February	318	239	770	455	380	2,165
March	400	226	416	309	311	2,011
April	216	222	416	296	320	1,702
May	200	155	501	318	400	2,075
June	117	167	376	690	509	2,209
July	118	210	363	691	511	1,772
August	110	177	47	451	250	1,704
September	219	565	353	370	521	1,874
October	291	1,033	411	474	59	2,531
November	42	1,101	451	505	464	1,111
December	45	518	491	512	455	2,090
TOTAL	4,107	6,725	5,992	7,070	4,485	26,381

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XII, showing INFIRMITIES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	IN-SANE		BLIND		DEAF AND DUMB		LEPERS	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
	Total	Villages	Total	Villages	Total	Villages	Total	Villages
All religions	217	115	1,313	1,020	155	270	62	23
Hindus	145	137	1,135	1,288	405	218	60	27
Sikhs	23	0	174	143	48	17	2	1
Muslimans	104	10	1,166	1,372	402	240	60	27

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. XIV to XVII of the Census of 1881.

Table No. XIII, showing EDUCATION.

1		2	3	4	5	1		2	3	4	5
		MALES		FEMALES				MALES		FEMALES	
		Under in- struction	Can read and write	Under in- struction	Can read and write			Under in- struction	Can read and write	Under in- struction	Can read and write
All religions { Hindus Sikhs Jains Buddhists	Total Villages	3,562	10,588	97	130	Muslimans	.	1,655	2,000	0	79
		2,202	6,507	78	77	Christians	.	6	15	3	3
		1,700	7,339	7	40	Tibetian Buddhists	.	1,195	3,002	68	40
					8	" Khushab	.	904	2,438	11	14
						" Dhera	.	1,628	4,188	26	67

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XIII of the Census of 1881.

Table No. XIV, showing detail of SURVEYED and ASSESSED AREA.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	CULTIVATED				UNCULTIVATED				Total area assessed	Gross assessment	Unappropriated oil & gas lands, the property of Govt
	Irrigated		Unirrigated	Total cultivated	Grazing lands	Culturable	Unculturable	Total uncultivated			
	By Government works	By private individuals									
1859-60		2,200	170,600	423,670		2 079,900	608,600	2,751,040	3,001,720	105,810	309,051
1873-74	8,124	817,000	64,267	490,901	801,457	1,285,483	497,070	2,587,540	3,007,607	416,173	301,687
1875-76	30,916	329,100	167,582	524,900	700,912	1,194,410	3,46,122	2,477,411	3,002,432	116,618	797,766
Tahsil details for 1878-79—											
Tahsil Shahpur	9,180	161,700	6,000	180,047	274,162	100,000	13,425	478,588	600,615	128,370	2,7,604
" Khushab	1,317	15,410	151,004	183,731	180,077	715,200	4,4,132	1,405,072	1,585,009	147,371	800,801
" Bhera	20,410	181,812	10,438	102,210	57,041	278,101	25,564	603,706	750,000	150,977	178,681

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. VIII of the Administration Report, except the last column, which is taken from Table No. I of the same Report.

Table No. XV, showing TENURES held direct from Government as they stood in 1878-79.

1	NATURE OF TENURE.	WHOLE DISTRICT.						TANJIL SHAHUPUR.						TANJIL KANDHAR.						TANJIL BIRHA.					
		No. of estates.	No. of villages.	No. of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	No. of estates.	No. of villages.	No. of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	No. of estates.	No. of villages.	No. of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	No. of estates.	No. of villages.	No. of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	No. of estates.	No. of villages.	No. of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.	No. of estates.	No. of villages.	No. of holders or shareholders.	Gross area in acres.
A.	ESTATES NOT BEING VILLAGE COMMUNITIES, AND PAYING IN COMMON (ZAMINDARI).	19	10	19	19,203	0	0	0	7,302
II.	Paying 1,000 ru. held by individuals or families under the ordinary law.																								
B.	PROPRIETARY CULTIVATING VILLAGE COMMUNITIES.																								
B.	Zamindari .. Paying the revenue and holding the land in common	46	40	364	69,836	20	20	164	18,257	2	2	22	29,437	16	13	178	21,772								
D.	Bhuyachara .. In which possession is the measure of right in all lands	116	116	13,704	947,008	116	116	13,704	947,007								
H.	Mixed or Impar .. In which the lands are held partly in severalty and partly in common, the measure of right in common land being the amount of the share or the extent of land held in severalty.	448	445	34,610	909,357	102	102	6,078	357,694	12	12	2,053	5,130	241	241	14,478	548,507								
F.	Grantees of Government not falling under any previous class, and paying revenue direct to Government in the position of :-																								
L.	Particulars, including individuals rewarded for service or other value, but not purchasers of Government lands.	25	25	2,497	202,801	1	1	1	6,611	24	24	2,466	104,250								
II.	Leases	41	41	400	44,131	17	17	121	16,743	6	6	31	4,104	19	19	248	23,287								
G.	Landholders who have retained the revenue and are not members of any village community not included in any previous class.	2	2	5	4,113	1	1	1	5,000	1	1	4	1,113								
I.	Government waste, reserved or unassigned	169	801,990	61	245,838	76	405,700	40	350,432								
	TOTAL ..	854	988	41,008	3,002,432	391	340	8,374	660,615	225	160	18,320	1,585,903	328	288	14,914	766,009								

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XXXIII of the Revenue Report for 1878-79.

Table No. XVI, showing TENURES not held direct from Government as they stood in 1878-79.

NATURE OF TENURE	District Sahiwal.		District Shekhar.		District Khushab.		District Bahra.	
	No. of holdings	Acres of land held	No. of holdings	Acres of land held	No. of holdings	Acres of land held	No. of holdings	Acres of land held
A.—TENANTS WITH RIGHT OF OCCUPANCY.								
I. Paying the amount of Government revenue only to the proprietors								
(a) Paying rent in cash	678	3,193	751	1,831	23	20	300	1,699
(b) Paying such amount, plus a cash allowance	1,778	19,606	31	390	992	9,619	435	3,467
Total paying rent in cash	2,456	22,799	782	2,221	1,015	9,639	735	5,166
II. Paying rent (a) Paying a profit, or a share of the produce of the land (b) Paying a profit, or a share of the produce of the land, plus a cash allowance								
(a) Paying a profit, or a share of the produce of the land	1,122	1,914	547	2,101	229	1,102	520	1,253
(b) Paying a profit, or a share of the produce of the land, plus a cash allowance	3,206	21,073	712	4,775	1,213	10,741	1,311	6,537
Total paying rent in kind	4,328	22,987	1,259	6,876	1,442	11,843	1,831	7,790
Grand Total of Tenants with right of occupancy	6,784	45,786	2,041	9,097	2,457	21,482	2,566	12,956
B.—TENANTS HOLDING CONDITIONALLY								
II For period (a) Written on file	278	11,111	17	10,713	13	4,101	218	23,387
C.—TENANTS-AT-WILL								
I. Paying in cash	675	19,470	6,398	10,778	440	5,950	235	14,560
II. Paying in kind (a) Paying a profit, or a share of the produce of the land (b) Paying a profit, or a share of the produce of the land, plus a cash allowance	10,419	74,001	2,531	25,571	1,213	10,741	1,311	6,537
Total paying rent in kind	11,094	93,471	3,169	36,349	1,653	16,691	1,546	21,097
D.—PARTIES HOLDING AND CULTIVATING SERVILE GRANTS FROM PROPRIETORS FREE OF ALL REVENUE								
I. Sardaars or Dharmadars	11	27	9	30	2	7
Grand Total of Tenures	24,010	241,005	8,407	87,403	6,901	87,500	8,612	96,003

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XXXIV of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XVII, showing GOVERNMENT LANDS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	No of estates	Total acres	Acres held under cultivating tenancy		Remaining acres			Average yearly income 1877-78 to 1881-82
			Cultivated	Uncultivated	Under forest & primaeval	Under other Department	Under Deputy Commissioner	
Whole District	170	645,679	18,693	23,593	274,921		528,714	63,044
Tahsil Shahpur	48	25,317	7,608	10,775			2,0910	
" Khushab	90	41,470	7,970		133,649		2,61,000	
" Bhara	41	172,032	7,110	12,754	141,151		11,618	

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No IX of the Revenue Report of 1881 b.

Table No. XIX, showing LAND ACQUIRED by GOVERNMENT.

Purpose for which acquired	Acres acquired	Compensation paid, in rupees.	Reduction of revenue, in rupees
Roads	2,014	7,078	1,102
Canals	45	85	17
State Railways	1,06	2,020	15
Guaranteed Railways			
Miscellaneous	14	182	8
Total	2,227	10,271	1,142

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No XI of the Revenue Report

Table No XX, showing ACRES UNDER CROPS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
YEARS	Total	Rice	Wheat	Sauv	Bajra	Makhi	Jau	Gram	Moth	Pegpy	Tobacco	Cotton	Indigo	Sugarcane	Vegetables
1878-79	330,731	770	134,236	15,701	107,604	917	9,267	8,254	7,947	1,743	815	29,159		580	2,270
1874-75	357,887	844	1,35,678	17,131	82,118	896	9,231	15,696	9,277	440	989	21,880		770	27,552
1876-76	350,291	1,037	165,690	19,871	45,129	939	11,430	9,435	8,607	2,084	972	24,368		907	27,664
1876-77	335,699	910	109,327	20,654	87,969	834	15,637	29,517	5,504	2,162	835	20,029		1,112	11,072
1877-78	289,890	659	190,074	8,012	7,050	765	13,811	11,097	7,709	5,145	961	24,002		1,014	3,082
1878-79	306,222	934	187,194	22,407	60,796	2,197	10,715	784	12,811	2,721	1,042	42,766		1,550	18,090
1879-80	427,980	1,662	171,466	17,888	6,771	1,918	9,900	4,359	9,650	4,408	653	23,481		1,093	8,977
1880-81	338,221	1,220	177,279	25,723	64,218	3,075	9,489	7,030	8,141	4,201	1,064	20,602		1,185	1,201
1881-82	334,918	1,540	168,471	20,700	62,102	2,547	9,468	4,140	6,862	3,491	1,229	81,163	6	1,450	1,610

TAHSEIL AVERAGES FOR THE FIVE YEARS FROM 1877-78 TO 1881-82															
NAMF OF TAHSEIL	33,799	157	47,090	8,190	4,221	23	9,780	2,935	730	2,047	361	18,410	1	101	2,373
Shahpur	132,721	653	64,912	4,741	33,380	678	1,921	2,079	7,133	820	107	5,874		5	2,960
Khushab	170,687	460	60,504	6,401	9,055	1,400	4,017	1,064	2,007	659	889	9,123		1,094	259
Bhara															
TOTAL	337,208	1,170	177,497	19,206	46,600	2,100	10,519	5,482	8,926	3,035	1,058	28,357	1	1,201	6,192

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No XLIV of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXI, showing RENT RATES and AVERAGE YIELD.

1		2			3
Nature of crop		Rent per acre of land suited for the various crops, as it stood in 1891-92			Average produce per acre as estimated in 1891-92
		Rs	A	P	lbs
Rice	Maximum	12	0	0	692
	Minimum	5	0	0	
Indigo	Maximum	45	0	0	60
	Minimum				
Cotton	Maximum	8	0	0	70
	Minimum	4	0	0	
Sugar	Maximum	42	0	0	
	Minimum	19	0	0	
Opium	Maximum	77	0	0	11
	Minimum	19	0	0	
Tobacco	Maximum	17	0	0	600
	Minimum	7	0	0	
Wheat	Irrigated	Maximum	15	0	792
		Minimum	7	0	
	Unirrigated	Maximum	9	0	
Inferior grains	Irrigated	Maximum	2	0	649
		Minimum	13	0	
	Unirrigated	Maximum	4	0	
Oil seeds	Irrigated	Maximum	5	0	210
		Minimum	2	0	
	Unirrigated	Maximum	14	0	
Fibres	Irrigated	Maximum	4	0	728
		Minimum	4	0	
	Unirrigated	Maximum	14	0	
		Minimum	4	0	
Gram					
Barley					
Wheat					
Vegetables					
Trees					

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLVI of the Administration Report

Table No. XXII, showing NUMBER of STOCK

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kind of stock	WHOLE DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS			TALUKAS FOR THE YEAR 1878-79		
	1878-79	1878-79	1878-79	Shahpur	Rhuharab	Ubern
	1878-79	1878-79	1878-79	Shahpur	Rhuharab	Ubern
Cows and bullocks	154,160	169,561	131,855	65,372	110,053	62,381
Horses	1,521	1,115	920	157	213	550
Ponies	1,061	2,204	1,009	72	887	50
Donkeys	9,405	10,764	9,071	1,800	9,241	3,950
Sheep and goats	172,888	182,653	160,249	29,500	98,491	38,250
Pigs						
Camels	14,006	14,419	9,920	2,107	6,053	1,670
Carts	1,612	1,514	800	205	8	3
Ploughs	32,555	46,410	48,018	13,514	24,714	17,920
Bulls	84	68	93	21	43	17

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLV of the Administration Report

Table No. XXIII, showing OCCUPATIONS of MALES.

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Number.	Nature of occupations	Males above 15 years of age			Number.	Nature of occupations	Males above 15 years of age.		
		Towns	Villages.	Total.			Towns.	Villages.	Total.
1	Total population	10,089	116,420	132,109	17	Agricultural labourers	71	1,611	1,682
2	Occupation specified	16,371	101,307	110,478	18	Pastoral	93	8,021	8,114
3	Agricultural, whether simple or combined	3,035	57,993	61,033	19	Coolies and other servants	364	1,359	1,723
4	Civil Administration	795	1,363	2,158	20	Water-carriers	68	85	153
5	Army	31	100	137	21	Sweepers and scavengers	100	1,950	2,050
6	Religion	469	1,033	1,466	22	Workers in reed, cane, leaves, straw, &c.	103	543	646
7	Barbers	266	1,420	1,620	23	Workers in leather	8	..	8
8	Other professions	101	279	380	24	Boot makers	162	3,460	3,622
9	Money-lenders, general traders, pedlars, &c.	355	527	882	25	Workers in wool and pashm	29	39	68
10	Dealers in grain and flour	1,213	4,618	5,801	26	" " silk	8	..	8
11	Corn grinders, pinders, &c.	4	91	85	27	" " cotton	1,845	7,522	9,367
12	Confectioners, green grocers, &c.	419	96	515	28	" " wood	699	2,086	2,685
13	Carriers and boatmen	725	3,500	4,215	29	Potters	212	1,818	2,030
14	Landowners	1,296	29,696	30,992	30	Workers and dealers in gold and silver.	256	764	1,020
15	Tenants	1,515	22,944	24,459	31	Workers in iron	116	873	989
16	Joint cultivators	7	359	366	32	General labourers	1,549	4,452	6,001
					33	Beggars, vagrants, and the like	1,475	6,406	7,881

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. XII A of the Census Report of 1881.

Table No. XXIV, showing MANUFACTURES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Silk.	Cotton.	Wool.	Other fabrics.	Paper.	Wood.	Iron.	Brass and copper.	Buildings.	Dyeing and manufacturing of dyes.
Number of mills and large factories	1
Number of private looms or small works.	100	6,973	123	..	1,071	403	27	126	..	109
Number of workmen (Male	68
in large works, (Female
Number of workmen in small works or independent artisans.	154	10,104	201	..	1,403	690	30	182	..	177
Value of plant in large works
Estimated annual out-turn of all works in rupees	21,040	18,29,568	87,162	..	4,807	1,40,019	81,044	35,780	18,814	29,304
	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19		
	Leather.	Pottery, common and glazed.	Oil pressing and refining.	Pashmina and Shawls.	Carpets.	Gold, silver, and jewellery.	Other manufactures.	Total.		
Number of mills and large factories
Number of private looms or small works.	2,213	1,177	230	..	4	627	440	13,533
Number of workmen (Male
in large works, (Female
Number of workmen in small works or independent artisans	2,930	1,185	806	..	5	943	760	19,620
Value of plant in large works
Estimated annual out turn of all works in rupees.	4,30,290	1,04,151	69,239	..	387	7,09,537	51,453	36,62,310

NOTE.—These figures are taken from the Report on Internal Trade and Manufactures for 1881-82.

Table No. XXX, showing ASSIGNED LAND REVENUE.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
TAHSIL	TOTAL AREA AND REVENUE ASSIGNED									PERIOD OF ASSIGNMENT
	Hole Villages		Fractional parts of villages		Plots		Total		In perpetuity	
	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue
Shahpur	7,241	4,314	920	338	1,668	1,227	10,713	5,918	7,318	4,396
Amroha	1,81,219	18,122			2,000	1,213	1,82,919	19,846	83,041	18,786
Etah	3,417	1,404			2,074	2,540	5,497	3,754	502	690
Total District	1,02,425	24,570	920	338	5,742	4,780	1,08,161	29,498	91,021	21,689

12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
TAHSIL	PERIOD OF ASSIGNMENT—Continued									NUMBER OF ASSIGNEES			
	For one life		For more than one		Deductions on the name of Establishments		For more than one		For more than one		During maintenance		Total
	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	Area	Revenue	In perpetuity	For one life	For more than one	During maintenance	
Shahpur	2,601	1,184			920	338			29	4		1	67
Amroha	1,15,111	11,416			2,000	1,213			3	65		4	72
Etah	3,230	1,359			1,635	1,640			21	57		18	91
Total District	1,04,331	24,599			5,645	5,022			53	129		18	230

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XII of the Revenue Report for 1931-32.

Table No. XXXI, showing BALANCES, REMISSIONS and TAKAVI.

YEAR	Balances of Revenue in rupees		Reductions of fixed demand on account of depreciation, etc., in rupees	Takavi advances in rupees
	Fixed revenue	Fluctuating and miscellaneous revenue		
1909-10	16,975		27	2,590
1910-11	8,713		42	11,110
1911-12	10,127		210	11,150
1912-13	4,201		0	10,799
1913-14	7,439		810	2,100
1914-15	7,014		2,048	812
1915-16	4,064		715	
1916-17	4,343	1,101	725	2,110
1917-18	1,009	1,020		770
1918-19	5,012	101		890
1919-20	7,041	610		
1920-21	1,493	112		670
1921-22	5,411	6,758		910

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. 1, II, III, and IV of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XXXIII, showing REGISTRATIONS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Number of Deeds registered.					
	1880-81			1881-82.		
	Compulsory.	Optional	Total.	Compulsory.	Optional	Total.
Registrar Shahpur
Sub-Registrar Shahpur	234	22	256	250	144	403
„ Bhera	979	130	1,109	592	80	672
„ Khushab	193	67	260	184	55	239
Total of district	821	421	1,242	775	285	1,060

NOTE.—The figures are taken from Table No. I of the Registration Report.

Table No. XXXIV, showing LICENSE TAX COLLECTIONS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
YEAR.	NUMBER OF LICENSES GRANTED IN EACH CLASS AND GRADE.											Total number of licences.	Total amount of fees.	Number of villages in which licences granted.
	Class I.				Class II.				Class III.					
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3			
	Rs. 500	Rs. 200	Rs. 150	Rs. 100	Rs. 75	Rs. 50	Rs. 25	Rs. 10	Rs. 5	Rs. 2	Rs. 1			
1878-79	..	.		2	4	10	74	991	783	1,896	14,797	17,917	29,187	..
1879-80	4	4	14	73	121	613	1,929	12,963	16,849	25,673	..
1880-81	2	2	11	70	48	524	7,050	193
1881-82	6	6	9	54	411	519	7,015	121
Total details for 1881-82—	1	1	..	9	134	144	1,715	49
Tab-ul-Shahpur	1	1	6	21	117	174	2,603	34
„ Khushab	12	2	3	29	167	201	2,625	39
„ Bhera

Table No. XXXV, showing EXCISE STATISTICS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
YEAR.	FERMENTED LIQUORS.					INTOXICATING DRUGS.					EXCISE REVENUE FROM			
	Number of retail dis- tilleries.	No of retail shops.		Consumption in gallons.		No of retail licences.		Consumption in rupees.			Fermented liquors	Drugs	Total.	
		Country spirits.	Euro- pean liquors.	Rum.	Country spirits.	Opium.	Other drugs.	Opium	Charras.	Brandy.				Other drugs.
1877 78	12	0	4	22	704	1	9	71	2	45	8,853	11,107	17,960	
1878 79	12	0	6	110	772	3	3	71	31	75	9,721	11,933	15,654	
1879 80	12	8	9	125	987	9	2	6	6	41	4,112	18,616	17,727	
1880 81	12	9	10	61	1,201	3	3	83	43	47	5,245	10,246	15,488	
1881 82	10	10	15	7	840	3	3	51	22	40	5,092	12,661	17,654	
TOTAL	10	43	41	376	4,078	15	15	177	173	271	22,023	62,460	81,483	
Average	1	9	9	79	936	3	3	7	23	60	4,405	12,492	16,897	

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, II, VIII, IX, X, of the Excise Report.

Table No XXXVI, showing DISTRICT FUNDS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
YEAR	Annual income in rupees			Annual expenditure in rupees						
	Provincial rates	Miscellaneous	Total income	Establishment	District post and territorial	Education	Medical	Miscellaneous	Public Works	Total expenditure
1874-75			94,553	1,120	2,297	4,216	191	210	12,209	22,713
1875-76			9,012	1,551	1,110	4,577	491	3	19,476	21,850
1876-77			7,672	1,914	2,271	4,125	5,401	23	29,447	37,716
1877-78			91,291	1,906	2,390	4,541	5,490	241	16,130	29,000
1878-79			87,404	1,111	2,292	7,118	1,586	257	6,197	29,000
1879-80	34,833	5,002	99,146	1,751	2,185	5,515	1,505	2,402	1,021	29,000
1880-81	34,947	1,642	87,879	1,781	2,471	5,770	1,016	2,077	1,775	29,000
1881-82	35,212	1,903	26,614	1,021	4,111	5,210	1,500	1,451	6,530	29,000

Note.—These figures are taken from Appendices A and B to the Annual Review of District Fund operations.

Table No. XXXVII, showing GOVERNMENT and AIDED SCHOOLS

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
YEAR.	HIGH SCHOOLS					MIDDLE SCHOOLS					PRIMARY SCHOOLS									
	ENGLISH		VERNACULAR			ENGLISH		VERNACULAR			ENGLISH		VERNACULAR							
	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Aided	Government	Aided
	Schools	Scholars	Schools	Scholars	Schools	Schools	Scholars	Schools	Scholars	Schools	Schools	Scholars	Schools	Scholars	Schools	Scholars	Schools	Scholars	Schools	Scholars

FIGURES FOR BOYS

1877-78						1	149				3	639					29	1,117		257
1878-79						1	151				3	614					29	1,170		257
1879-80						1	95				1	1					11	1,685		
1880-81						1	64				1	1					21	1,791		
1881-82						1	47				2	74					11	1,911		

FIGURES FOR GIRLS

1877-78																				
1878-79																				
1879-80																	1	10		
1880-81																	1	14		
1881-82																	1	13		

N.B.—Since 1879-80, in the case of both Government and Aided Schools, those scholars only who have completed the Middle School course are shown in the returns as attending High Schools, and those only who have completed the Primary school course are shown as attending Middle Schools. Previously to that year, boys attending the Upper Primary Department were included in the returns of Middle Schools in the case of Institutions under the immediate control of the Education Department, whilst in Institutions under District Officers, boys attending both the Upper and Lower Primary Departments were included in Middle Schools. In the case of Aided Primary Departments, a High School included the Middle and Primary Departments attached to it, and a Middle School the classed as Aided Schools, in the returns for 1879-80 and subsequent years they have been shown as Government Schools Branches of English Schools whether Government or Aided that were formerly included amongst Vernacular Schools, are now returned as English Schools. Hence the returns before 1879-80 do not afford the means of making a satisfactory comparison with the statistics of subsequent years.

Indigenous Schools and Jain Schools are not included in these returns.

Table No. XXXVIII, showing the working of DISPENSARIES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Name of Dispensary.	Class of Dispensary.	NUMBER OF PATIENTS TREATED														
		Men.					Women					Children				
		1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.
Shahpur Dist. City Dispensary.	1st	5,114	6,108	6,229	5,113	4,213	313	67	1,196	1,801	1,801	512	778	552	1,491	1,015
Shahpur Dist. Town Dispensary.	2nd	3,512	3,562	3,480	4,000	2,150	2,007	2,068	2,062	1,800	1,801	1,801	1,801	1,801	1,801	1,801
Shahpur Dist. Rural Dispensary.	3rd	5,417	6,518	6,710	7,423	7,223	1,791	1,791	1,471	1,471	1,704	1,511	1,411	1,720	1,000	9,058
Shahpur Dist. Suburban Dispensary.	4th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Khushab Dispensary.	5th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Muzil Dispensary.	6th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Nandahar Dispensary.	7th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Dandara Dispensary.	8th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Mithra Dispensary.	9th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Naurpur Dispensary.	10th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Ghol Dispensary.	11th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Total ..		33,810	33,108	33,102	33,423	33,423	12,372	12,372	12,372	12,372	12,372	12,372	12,372	12,372	12,372	12,372

18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
Total Expend.					In-patient Expend.					Expenditure on Out-patients				
1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.
Shahpur Dist. City Dispensary.	1st	6,108	7,401	8,229	6,108	6,108	6,108	6,108	6,108	6,108	6,108	6,108	6,108	6,108
Shahpur Dist. Town Dispensary.	2nd	3,562	3,562	3,562	3,562	3,562	3,562	3,562	3,562	3,562	3,562	3,562	3,562	3,562
Shahpur Dist. Rural Dispensary.	3rd	6,518	7,423	7,423	6,518	6,518	6,518	6,518	6,518	6,518	6,518	6,518	6,518	6,518
Shahpur Dist. Suburban Dispensary.	4th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Khushab Dispensary.	5th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Muzil Dispensary.	6th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Nandahar Dispensary.	7th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Dandara Dispensary.	8th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Mithra Dispensary.	9th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Naurpur Dispensary.	10th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Shahpur Dist. Ghol Dispensary.	11th	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Total ..		23,510	23,510	23,510	23,510	23,510	23,510	23,510	23,510	23,510	23,510	23,510	23,510	23,510

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. II, IV, and V of the Dispensary Report.

Table No. XXXIX, showing CIVIL and REVENUE LITIGATION.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
YEAR.	Nature of Civil Suits concerning				Value in rupees of Suits concerning *			Number of Revenue cases
	Money or movable property.	Rent and tenancy matters.	Land and revenue, and other matters.	Total	Land	Other matters	Total	
1878	3,012	0	500	4,448	10,774	1,81,777	2,01,511	3,415
1879	7,229	0	1,180	4,400	21,200	2,18,712	2,40,020	4,400
1880	4,457	10	1,603	5,500	22,743	2,54,113	2,76,011	3,770
1881	4,154	27	614	6,229	61,348	2,54,571	2,61,479	3,934
1882	4,001	21	502	6,500	29,467	2,51,615	2,64,080	4,105

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. VI and VII of the Civil Reports for 1878 to 1880, and Nos. II and III of the Reports on Civil Justice for 1881 and 1882.

* Suits heard in Settlement courts are excluded from the 6th column, no details of the value of the property being available.

Table No. XL, showing CRIMINAL TRIALS.

1		2	3	4	5	6
DETAILS		1878	1879	1880	1881	1882
Persons tried.	Brought to trial	9,173	1,298	8,764	4,041	4,931
	Discharged	1,168	1,121	1,780	1,446	1,708
	Acquitted	149	166	289	514	568
	Convicted	1,513	1,872	1,736	2,062	1,667
	Committed or referred	51	90	15	75	75
Cases disposed of.	Summons cases (regular)				91	1,083
	Warrant cases (regular)				1	15
	Summons cases (summary)				613	554
	Total cases disposed of	1,071	1,777	1,662	1,010	1,780
Number of persons sentenced to	Death	1		6	3	3
	Transportation for life	1	0	2	3	3
	Penal servitude					
	" under Rs. 10	54	1,011	1,082	1,224	1,423
	" 10 to 50 rupees	582	414	423	398	290
	" 50 to 100 "	40	25	10	24	21
	" 100 to 500 "	1		1	3	4
	" 500 to 1,000 "					
	Over 1,000 rupees					
	Imprisonment under 6 months	201	222	280	283	348
	" 6 months to 2 years	241	238	255	216	6
	" over 2 years	16	17	12	15	16
	Whipping	40	57	72	69	18
	Fine sentence of this year	106	151	17	163	82
	Recognisance to keep the peace	10	29	12	34	4
	Give surities for good behaviour	40	67	71	172	153

Note.—These figures are taken from State and District Criminal Reports for 1878 to 1880, and Nos. IV and V of the Criminal Reports for 1881 and 1882.

Table No. XLI, showing POLICE INQUIRIES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Nature of offence.	Number of cases inquired into					Number of persons arrested or summoned					Number of persons convicted				
	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881
Rioting or unlawful assembly	17	18	14	18	26	229	171	167	224	10	163	143	102	184	242
Murder and attempts to murder	1	8	10	7	9	1	12	15	8	21	1	4	3	7	6
Total serious offences against the person	34	51	60	57	56	57	93	104	86	31	72	31	67	57	45
Abduction of married women															
Total serious offences against property	177	179	231	250	215	116	148	146	180	109	73	92	98	74	70
Total minor offences against the person	17	27	19	20	26	95	47	35	47	48	29	41	23	34	33
Cattle theft	112	128	181	187	173	100	107	210	155	170	68	91	142	93	99
Total minor offences against property	363	382	432	581	470	378	418	477	602	521	265	320	348	567	503
Total cognizable offences	608	627	761	946	706	822	612	626	1,091	1,196	763	652	646	718	700
Rioting, unlawful assembly, affray	7	5	6	2	4	26	87	59	4	22	33	33	29	4	18
Offences relating to marriage	1	8	2	2		0	8	5	2		4	7	1	2	
Total non cognizable offences	66	83	74	44	24	11	218	181	95	15	138	147	111	76	57
GRAND TOTAL of offences	674	710	835	990	810	833	1,150	1,107	1,186	1,211	901	799	757	794	757

Note.—These figures are taken from Statement A of the Police Report.

Table No. XLII, showing CONVICTS in GAOL.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Year	Age in months at beginning of the year		Age at expiration of the year		Classification of convicts			Previous occupation of male convicts					
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Murderers	Thieves	Household and other	Official	Professional	Service	Agricultural.	Commercial	Industrial
1877-78	50	12	23	21	11	1		11		4	640		
1878-79	20	10	10	10	719	2		17		1	576		
1879-80	17	14	44	13	10	14					146		25
1880-81	51	17	545	17	17	17		5			173		15
1881-82	317	47	47	10	214	17		5			137		24

15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
Length of service of convicts							Fines and emolument		Financial results		
Under 6 months.	6 months to 1 year	1 year to 2 years	2 years to 5 years	5 years to 10 years	Over 10 years and transportation	Death	Once.	Twice.	More than twice.	Cost of maintenance	Profit of convict labour.
1877-78	181	21	6	0	0	1	16	1	2	11,875	2,772
1878-79	212	22	10	0	0	1	16	1	2	15,707	1,516
1879-80	10	14	12	1	1	1	1	1	4	20,411	1,214
1880-81	100	15	12	1	1	1	1	1	4	18,410	1,456
1881-82	15	148	21	1	1	1	11	1	6	18,420	4,723

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. XXXIII, XXXIV, XLV, XLVI, and XLVII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XLIII, showing the POPULATION of TOWNS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Tahsil	Town	Total population	Hindu	Muslim	Jains	Muslims	Other religions	No. of occupied houses	Persons per 100 occupied houses
Shahpur	Shahpur	8,580	481	160		7,681		2,100	417
	Shahpur	7,762	3,108	71		5,253	17	1,001	767
Khushab	Khushab	8,000	2,402	227		1,000	1	1,201	711
	Garot	3,770	230			1,839		410	127
Bhera	Bhera	15,165	5,743	20		9,151		2,001	54
	Miani	6,053	4,000	101	2	1,850	2	1,070	600

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. XX of the Census Report of 1891.

Table No. XLIV, showing BIRTHS and DEATHS for TOWNS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
TOWN.	Sex.	Total population by the Census of	Total births registered during the year.					Total deaths registered during the year.				
		1875.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.
Lhara	Males	7,001	423	402	403	399	423	242	295	257	247	231
	Females	7,109	385	364	305	374	442	216	302	232	272	231

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. LVII of the Administration Report.

Table No XLV, showing MUNICIPAL INCOME.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NAME OF MUNICIPALITY	Mianl.	Sihwal.	Musliab.	Bhona.	Shahpur.	Gret.
Class of Municipality	III.	III.	III.	III.	III.	III.
1870-71	3,650	10,873	7,501	10,431	.	.
1871-72	3,339	9,143	8,581	11,641	.	..
1872-73	3,104	9,356	7,770	10,564	.	.
1873-74	4,090	8,202	7,006	11,245	.	..
1874-75	4,283	8,641	9,662	10,276
1875-76	5,107	8,772	8,054	8,448	1,607	2,078
1876-77	3,604	6,230	8,440	5,010	1,560	1,611
1877-78	3,765	6,413	10,288	9,400	2,334	2,144
1878-79	3,331	7,625	15,168	10,143	1,561	2,034
1879-80	3,605	10,033	10,732	11,265	1,071	4,072
1880-81	0,000	8,179	8,645	11,618	1,508	4,160
1881-82	6,808	8,203	5,502	10,876	1,455	2,768

